PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL JOURNAL.

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THE SCHOOL JOURNAL.

PUBLISHED MONTHLY.

THO. H. BURROWES, Editor.

Agents of the Pa. School Journal,
Authorized to receive subscriptions and money, and to give receipts for the Editor:

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JAMES A. IRWIN, Esq., Pittsburg, Allegheny.

THE ABSENCE OF THE EDITOR the past week at the National Association of the Friends of Education, which held its annual session in Newark, N. J., will account for the want of editorial matter in this number.

LANCASTER COUNTY EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.—The annual meeting of this Society, which took place on the 7th inst, though slimly attended, was marked by considerable spirit and interest in the proceedings. Its doings will be found reported in the present number of the Journal. The Report on Phonography and Phonotypy will, if possible, be published next month.

SCHOOL WARRANTS.—Those School Districts which have made their reports to the Superintendent according to law, will receive warrants for their respective shares of the State appropriation early in August. They will be sent by mail, directed to the district Treasurers. A considerable number of districts have not yet reported, particularly in the northern and central portions of the State. It is hoped these delinquents will not delay further in complying with the requirements of the law. It is important that the reports not yet returned to the Superintendent should be made at the earliest period.

The newspapers of the State generally would confer a favor upon the public by noticing the foregoing. —*Keystone.*

School Statistics.

POTTSVILLE SCHOOLS.

MR. BURROWES:—I perceive from the statistics of the Pottsville Schools, as given in the Journal, that an error has been made in giving the number in daily attendance. It should have been 938 instead of 538. The following numbers give the daily average for several successive months:

February, 1852,	- - - - - -	938
March,	" - - - - - -	803
April,	" - - - - - -	719
May,	" - - - - - -	801
June,	" - - - - - -	802

A daily average of only 538, out of 1033, gave rather an unfavorable account of our schools. Will you, therefore, please insert this statement in the August No. of the Journal.

Respectfully yours,

E. SCHNEIDER.

PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL.

The semi-annual commencement of the People's College, yesterday morning at the Musical Fund Society, attracted as usual, a brilliant audience, consisting mostly of ladies. The exercises were of the most interesting character, the compositions delivered by the graduating class being of the highest order of merit, and eliciting much applause from the audience. A powerful orchestra, under the direction of B. C. Cross, interspersed the exercises with some beautiful overtures and other pieces of music. The following was the order in which the addresses were delivered:

George Wolfe—The Love of Kindred,
Benjamin S. Moxey—The World's Three Ages.
Ed. H. Binns—Religion applied to the Intellect.
Chas. H. R. Lawrence—The Decay of Feelings.
A. Eugene Smith—Aspirations of Youth.
Henry C. Kennedy—Associations.
William H. Corkle—The Stage of Life.
Samuel F. Stratton—The Indian.
Theodore McMurtrie—Romance and History.
Honorary Address—John C. White.

The names of the following students were then announced by Prof. Hart as having distinguished themselves:

Division A.—John C. White, Alexander H. Jones,

George Wolfe, Benjamin S. Moxey, Edward H. Binns. Division B.—Henry W. Reese, James B. Fisher, Alexander P. Colesberry, Wm. W. Keen, Wm. Wells, Wm. M. Bremer, Bartlett F. Converse. Division C.—Stephen Harris, Evan W. Thomas, Joseph S. Harris, James G. Whiteman, Henry S. Schell. Division D.—Thomas Peirce. Wm. F. Mason, Samuel P. Huhn, Theodore R. Graham, Hugh O. Roberts, George H. Mitchell. Division E 1.—Charles W. Green, Wm. H. Evans, Francis C. Hoffman, John E. Cookman. Division E 2.—Alexander H. F. Williamson, Henry W. Knauff. Division F 1.—Alfred H. Kellogg, Charles H. Brown, Frederick M. Bird. Division F 2.—Geo. M. Sayre, James P. Marks. Division G 1.—Edward B. Alsop, Reese F. Alsop. Division G 2.—Frank Wolfe, Wm. J. Parrot, Walter Wingate. Division H 1—John L. Gihon. Division H 2.—Thomas E. McElroy, George S. Moyer, John S. Jenks, Eugene E. Montalant, Wm. H. Kimber, Wm. C. Maddock. Division H 3.—Livingston Reese.

Whole number of students, 502.—Total distinguished, 47.

Professor Hart next awarded Testimonials to the following students, who have partially completed their four year's Course.

Students who have completed the two years' Course—Henry K. Dillard, Charles C. Allen, Chas. D. Kenworty, Theodore M. Morgan, Alexander H. De Haven, John Waddell, Chas. A. Pearson, Alfred Copestick, Dudley W. Burchard, William R. Woodruff, Theodore Dike.

Students who have completed two and a half years of the four years' Course—John F. Klumpp, Randolph Craig.

Students who have completed three years of the four years' Course—Samuel J. McMullen, Edward H. Cross, James H. Stevenson, John A. Lane, Sam. W. Elmes, Francis B. Rose.

Students who have completed three and a half years of the four years' Course—Spencer C. Mustin, James M. McCalla.

Total Testimonials, 21.

The conferring of degrees followed, sixteen receiving the degree of Bachelor of Arts, being students who have completed the full four years' Course—John C. White, Alexander H. Jones, Geo. Wolfe, Edward N. Bailey, Edward H. Binns, Benjamin S. Moxey, Harry C. Kennedy, Charles H. R. Lawrence, John E. Harron, George H. Cooke, Benjamin D. Franklin, Edward H. Weil, Alfred E. Smith, William H. Conkle, Theodore McMurtrie, Samuel F. Stratton.

The Degree of Master of Arts was conferred upon the following Graduates of the four years' Course, of at least five years standing—Henry E. Busch, William J. Rhees, Christian F. Erichson, Benjamin B. Wilson, M. D.

The Valedictory Address by Alexander H. Jones, with which the exercises closed, was an effort of surpassing merit, reflecting a credit for eloquence and powers of oratory, that did honor to the youthful graduate of the school he so worthily represents.

The Alumni Addres was delivered last evening by Andrew Mason, A. M., at the Musical Fund Hall to a brilliant and crowded audience. [*Ledger.*

Appointment of Teachers.—The Board of Directors of Lancaster city, at their last meeting, elected Mr. Amos Row, lately an Assistant in White Hall Academy, Cumberland co., to the principalship of the Male Secondary School in the East Ward, lately vacated by H. W. Gilbert.

Academies, Seminares & Collges.

SHARON FEMALE SEMINARY, DELAWARE COUNTY.

This Institution, of which John & Rachel Jackson are principals, is situated in a pleasant and healthy location, one mile from the village of Darby, in Delaware County, Pa., and seven miles from Philadelphia. It has been in operation fourteen years. New, large and beautiful buildings have lately been erected, with ample accommodations to promote the comfort and health of the pupils.

The School opens on the 1st day of the Ninth Month, and continues in session ten months, making two terms of five months each. Vacation during the seventh and eighth months. No pupil admitted for a less time than one term.

The course of tuition embraces the elementary and higher branches of a practical and liberal English Education; also the French language.

Lectures are given to the pupils on Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, Physiology, Chemistry, and other branches of Science, accompanied with numerous experiments and illustrations. The school is furnished with superior Philosophical, Chemical and Physiological apparatus; an extensive Geological and Mineralogical Cabinet containing over three thousand specimens, and a well selected library of standard works on scientific subjects, Biography, History and General Literature. There is an Observatory attached to the institution in which is placed a nine feet Equatorial Telescope, made by Merz & Son, of Munich, a Transit Instrument and Sidereal Clock, all of the best construction, at a cost of $4000.

The physiological apparatus includes a complete Parisian model of the human system, of *papier-mache*, which admits of dissection, and in connection with charts and colored engravings is used to elucidate in a beautiful manner the important Science of Physiology.

The principals are aided by competent teachers in the management of the school.

About 600 pupils have enjoyed the advantages of this superior institution since its establishment. At the close of one of its terms an able address was delivered by the female Principal, on Woman's duty to cultivate her intellect. We have only space for a few of the concluding paragraphs:

I have said that you have but glanced over the field of science. Let me remind you that zeal is wanting in the cultivation of it. Are there any among you who are satisfied with the birds eye view you have taken—who are content to know no more, to study no more, to leave unread and unexplained the great volume of nature, a few pages of which we have endeavored to unfold to you? If you grow weary of intellectual labor and lay aside your studies, when the association of classmate with classmate shall cease, and the relation of teacher and pupil shall no longer subsist, I fear it will be because you

have not attained enough to qualify you to appreciate the value of what you have yet to learn.

The most advanced among you, are yet but upon the threshold of science and literature—the avenues of learning are open wide before you—enter on the work with zeal. Let your thirst for knowledge be commensurate with the blessings with which it will enrich you, and let not your love of study be forgotten in the desire of the school girl to become the premature woman.

There are those among you, whose longings will not be satisfied by an occasional hour of study—who will be earnest in systematic intellectual labor—who will resume their books and pens with fresh delight—who have valued the guidance of teachers, who feel the necessity of educators to help them onward, upward in the ascent of the hill of science. I feel it a privilege to aid such, in elevating the standard of female education, and if health and strength be my portion, to welcome you again to your high pursuits after a season of rest and recreation. As there is seed time and harvest, may those of us who meet again in our present interesting relationship, come together with high resolves and full purpose of heart, to cultivate every talent and every gift, to redeem time by the industrious occupancy of it, and manifest by our zeal that we value the intellectual harvest. Even time

> "Shall thus roll on with ever fresh delight;
> No pause of pleasure or improvement; world
> On world still opening to the instructed mind
> An unexhausted universe. While the soul,
> Advancing even to the source of light
> And all perfection, lives, adores, and reigns,
> In cloudless knowledge, purity, and bliss."

I have urged upon you to labor—but labor implies a necessity to rest. The hour of our rest has come—we are now to separate—some of us perhaps forever. Your school-days will be remembered; some of your associations and friendships will be enduring as time. Your evening walks, your morning strolls through field and wood—the pine tree's shade—the corner seat, will often be associated with the joys of youthful companionship.

To many of you, your studies have been your pleasures, and in the pursuit of those you have found congenial friends; lesson by lesson has bound you yet more closely; whilst affection has "smoothed the steep ascent of learning."

Go then to your rest, for I have need of mine; but wherever you go my interest in your welfare will surround you—a sense of my own frailties will throw a veil over yours. You will be remembered with desires for your preservation in the paths of truth and rectitude; and my parting salutation to you is, maintain a constant watch over your conduct, and ever seek to preserve, as indispensable to your happiness, a conscience void of offence towards God and man.

HAMILTON FEMALE INSTITUTE.—We have before us a copy of the circular referring to the new female boarding school, under this title, about being opened by Mrs. and the Misses Dechert, in Hamilton Village, West Philadelphia.

The building has been erected with special reference to the purpose for which it will be used, and has every modern convenience and comfort. We have heretofore adverted to the fact that it will be thoroughly warmed and ventilated.

Of the merits of the Misses Dechert, as teachers, and as fitted to take charge of the moral training of the young, we need not speak, in a community that for some years past have been cognizant of their success. They have our best wishes in their new and enlarged sphere of labor, while we express our confidence that they will more than realize every expectatian of those who may place children or young ladies under their charge.—*Berks & Schuylkill Journal.*

NEW CASTLE ACADEMY.—The public examination of the pupils of this institution commenced on Tuesday evening and closed last evening; the whole proceeding having been highly interesting and satisfactory to all parties concerned. The pupils have advanced with unusual rapidity under the strict and efficient training of their preceptors in the different branches of studies. On Thursday evening Rev. C. A. Boardman, from Youngstown, Ohio, delivered an address on the subject of education, which was a gem. He is a pleasing speaker, a good scholar, and was listened to with the utmost attention by all present.—*Lawrence Journal.*

Susquehanna Academy.

We were unable to attend the examination of the students of this Institution, last week, but understand that the result was highly creditable to both the teachers and students. The Concert, on Wednesday evening was well attended. Arriving rather late, we found the large Academy Hall crowded, and many standing about the door, being unable to procure seats. This, with a room capable of seating nearly 1,000 persons, shows the interest felt in the school by the public. Though most of the performers were quite young, and had been engaged but a short time in the study of music, the concert passed off very agreeably, and many of the performances, both vocal and instrumental, were excellently well done.

On Thursday evening, notwithstanding a heavy shower which probably prevented many from attending, a numerous audience assembled in the Hall, and listened to an able and eloquent address from the Rev. H. A. Rowland of Honesdale.

The annual exhibition took place on Friday evening, when the Hall was again filled to overflowing. The compositions of the young ladies (such as we heard) were very well and smoothly written, and gave indication of talents in the writers, and careful training on part of their their teachers. The interest in the declamation of the young gentlemen was much increased by the fact that their pieces were original; and, in general, they were quite meritorious productions, and well delivered.

Nothing added more to the enjoyment of the hour than the performance of the Montrose Rrass Band.—The praiseworthy perseverance of the members of the Band, has been rewarded by the attainment of great skill in their art, and on this occasion their spirit-stirring notes, played at intervals during the evening, were duly appreciated by the audience. As the assemblage was about departing, the Band suddenly struck up "Yankee Doodle" with great spirit. Instantly every eye lighted with pleasure, and while the boys apparently felt a martial spirit within them, we saw unmistakable indications that some of the merry-hearted damsels present, understood it as a "loud call" to

> "Come and trip it, as you go,
> On the light fantastic toe."

The exhibition closed at about eleven o'clock, P. M., when the Band ascended to the Observatory that crowns the Academy building, and whiled away an hour in very gallantly serenading the moon.

Altogether, what we witnessed on this and former occasions, of the attainments of the students, gave as a very high opinion of Susquehanna Academy. It is evident that the teachers have not only the scientific and literary qualifications, but also patience and skill, requisite for the successful performance of their arduous duties. While our County contains Harford University, and Susquehanna Academy, and several other Educational Institutions of a high order, we can see little necessity for parents to send their sons and daughters abroad for an education. In this, as in other matters, we are in favor encouraging home industry.—*Susquehanna Register.*

SCHOOL OF DESIGN FOR WOMEN.

At the late meeting of the National Association of the friends of Education, held in Newark, N. J., Mr. P. P. Morris of Phila., read a paper on the above subject, of which the following is the substance as given in the New York Tribune:

At a meeting of the Association, held in Philadelphia in the year 1850, a "plea for History," and a memorial touching "a School of Design for Women," were referred to a Committee, to report to the Convention what, if any, steps should be taken by that body in the premises. The Committee reported that it was inexpedient at present to express any opinion upon the subject submitted to them, and were discharged. At a meeting of the Standing Committee, at Newark, on the 26th of May last, held for the purpose of preparing business for the Association, the question of Schools of Design was again introduced by Mr. Barnard, when it was resolved that a paper should be prepared, setting forth the claims of Schools of Design to the attention of educators generally, pointing out some of the advantages to the public which might be expected to flow from them. Mr. Morris was requested to prepare this paper, and as such presented this report. The perusal of certain documents and reports laid before the House of Commons together with a personal inspection of the school at Philadelphia under the care of the late lamented Mrs. Hall, and conversations with others, had placed in the possession of Mr. Morris such facts as he desired to present.

The object of "Schools of Design," or "Schools of Ornamental Art," as they are now termed in England, is the *improvement of decorative art*, or, the introduction of taste, as well of dexterous manipulation, into the workshop and factory—so that the productions shall neither be servile imitations of works already produced, nor whimsical incongruities unlike anything either in Heaven or Earth.

About eighteen years ago, the subject was introduced to the Parliament of Great Britain, and the importance of proper instruction in the arts of Design, to the manufacturing prosperity of the Nation, made so apparent that the Government established a School of Design at Somerset House in 1835, which has been followed by Provincial Schools in most of the important towns of England and Ireland. The latest reports of these establishments abound in evidence of their growing importance in the eyes of the manufacturers. Extracts from some of these reports were read in connection with this statement. The English Schools are common to male and female pupils, but a difficulty seems to exist there in regard to the employment of females, which is highly discreditable to those who entertain it, and nothing like which is to be anticipated in this country.

The first movement on this subject in the United States was made by Mrs. Peter, of Philadelphia, in the year 1848, and was due to an intelligent sympathy with the position of such of her country women who, from reverses of fortune or otherwise, were under the necessity of supporting themselves. The limited range of occupations open to woman, and the inadequacy of remuneration in most of those open to them, struck her very forcibly. The assertion of woman's rights (to use a common form of expression) in Convention, she felt was not the true method of relief. But she thought she saw in the cultivation and exercise of those faculties and powers in which her sex excels, avenues to independence and proper remuneration for their labor, consistent with their native delicacy and modesty—and such were as yet unoccupied by the other sex. She began with a class of some twenty young women, who were instructed in drawing and in the application of that art to the various branches of industrial pursuits in which it is an absolute requisite. As the class advanced, it was found that to carry out the plan as it should be, was too heavy an undertaking for a single patroness. A school was subsequently established under the auspices of the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia. Its aim was declared to be the instruction of Woman in the arts of Design, and in the various practical applications thereof. This school was formally opened at No. 70 Walnut st., Philadelphia, on the 2d of December, 1850, and the school established by Mrs. Peter merged in it.

The School consists of three departments, viz: 1st, Drawing; 2d, Industrial, or applications of Drawing; 3d, Wood Engraving and Lithography. The first of these was under the personal supervision of Mrs. Hill,(whose loss is mourned among the recent victims of the Henry Clay,) and contained 32 pupils at the date of the last annual report. In the second department, original sketches for design in calico-printing, paper-hangings, oil-cloth, carpets, furniture, &c.—Designs are copy-righted. In the third department there is a growing demand for wood-engravings. The report presented by Mr. Morris, embodied some valuable suggestions. It concluded with the following resolution:

Resolved, That this Association hear with pleasure of the establishment in this country of female Schools of Design, or Schools of Ornamental Art, as they are sometimes called—beholding in them one of the legitimate fruits of general rudimentary education, and looking upon them as important instruments in opening up proper fields for the exercise of female industry and talents, and as laying the foundation of intelligent independence in the industrial pursuits of the country.

Stop and Think.—Do our young friends ever think of the glorious privileges they enjoy at this day over their forefathers? Do young men, who earn their dollar per day, and spend it all or more, know that the foundation of most of the fortunes or competencies of those advanced in age were laid when the price of labor was not more than three or four shillings? In their fretting and muttering about their lot, do they not know that patient toil and judicious economy is all that is necessary for their happiness, or to win the reward of fortune? Do our boys ever reflect of the glorious advantages they enjoy for attaining an educatisn, over their fathers? Why will not the young properly estimate the great privileges with which they are surrounded.

Educational Societies.

Warren Teachers' Institute.

At the meeting of the Teachers and other friends of education, at Warren, on the 13th inst., to adopt measures to secure the greater efficiency of the Schools in the county; S. P. Thompson, Esq., the Chairman, named Messrs. Woden, Edwards, Delemater, and Miss C. Miller and Mrs. J. W. Weaver, a Committee, who presented matter for the meeting, which was revised and adopted as follows:

Whereas, The ruling spirit of the times, the demands of the age in which we live, and the honor of our common country call upon us to be not unmindful of the mental improvement of our race, and believing the same can in some measure be effected by a united effort in its behalf: and whereas, it has been in the past too much disregarded in the ceaseless zeal in other pursuits and has suffered by the defective system in which it has been pursued,—therefore,

Resolved, That while we approve of the efforts of Americans to give consequence to their native land and cannot but feel proud of our country's power and of our national name, we believe we can in no way better perform our earthly mission and promote the public weal, than by giving due attention to the claims of Science.

Resolved, That we are taught by experience that the system in which heretofore the scholar has labored is defective, and only furnishes the means whereby he performs a half finished task and wastes his hours over recitations miserably imperfect.

Resolved, That we believe that the defects in our system of Common Schools are owing in some measure to the little interest that is manifested in their behalf, and can be obviated by awakening into activity the energy which some united effort would bring.

Resolved, That in our opinion the organization of a Teachers' Institute would not fail to be productive of much good and awaken the now sleeping energies, and give new zeal to the cause of Education.

[The following resolution, offered by G. W. Scofield, Esq., was substituted by vote of the meeting for two of the regular series.]

Resolved, That a Committee of three be appointed to draft a Constitution and By-Laws for the organization of of a Teachers' Institute of Warren County, to be submitted for consideration to an adjourned meeting of this Convention.

Resolved, That the proceedings of this meeting be signed by the officers and published in the several papers in the county.

In accordance with the 5th resolution, the meeting appointed Messrs. S. P. Johnson, G. B. Delemater and W. E. Dalrymple a Committee for drafting a Constitution and By-Laws. They were also instucted, if practicable to procure a Lecturer to address the Teachers and friends of Education at the next meeting and to give timely notice thereof.

On motion, the meeting adjourned to meet again at Youngsville, Saturday, July 31st, at 2 o'clock. P. M.

S. P. JOHNSTON, Pres't.

C. D. SACKET, E. COWAN. } Secretaries.

—*Youngsville Ex.*

LAWRENCE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.

Meeting of the Executive Committee.

According to the first By-law of the Institute, the Executive Committee met on Saturday July 3, 1852,

The order of exercises agreed upon, and the lectures chosen for the next term of the Institute are as follows:

Reading, and English Grammer—L. T. Covell, Esq., of Allegheny City.

Orthography and Geography—A. T. Douthett of Allegheny City.

Arithmetic and School Government—Prof. Thompson, of Pitsburg.

Penmanship—P. R. Spencer, of Chamberlin's Commercial College, Pittsburgh.

EVENING LECTURERS.

Morals in School—Rev. D. H. A. M'Clain.

Astronomy—Rev. Vincent.

Geology—Mr. J. Markham.

Physiology—M. D. Leggett, Esq.

Also, Rev. J. Hutchman, Rev. R. A. Browne, Rev. A. G. Kirk, Rev. W. Bushnell, Rev, H. Kinsley, Mr. M. Gantz, R. Sutton, Esq., and Dr. D. Leasure.

Financial—In order to defray the expenses of Lectures, &c., it will be necessary to raise a small amount of money. After a full consultation it was thought best to address a letter to the Board of Directors of each township in the county, and request them to raise a specified amount. A very small amount from each Board of Directors, when put together will make up a sum sufficient to pay those well who labor for us.

The next term of the Institute will open on the second Monday of October next, and continue two weeks. It is hoped that the School Directors and School Committees will bear this in mind, and make their arrangements so that all the teachers in the county will not only feel at liberty to attend that meeting, but that they will be placed under obligations to be present and profit by the exercises.

WM. TRAVIS,
W. P. SHAW,
JAMES BRAKEY.
Exec. Com. Law. Teachers' Inst.

Lawrence Journal.]

MR. EDITOR,—Permit me to suggest in one of your columns, that the relative values of the different branches of education are not rightly estimated, and hence, in practice, the order is inverted. It will probably be conceded that each one of the human family, is to himself or herself, the most important of all created things. For this reason, acquaintance with "The house he lives in," requiring a knowledge of Anatomy and Physiology, is of vastly more consequence than than the relations of lines and proportions of triangles; they should therefore be taught in preference to Geometry. The composition of rocks, the stones and soils in our own vicinity, is of more immediate interest than the distant localities on earth's surface; hence Mineralogy has better adaptation to our wants than Geography.

These are not all the cases in which the horse is in the rear of the cart; but a word to the wise puts them to thinking.

OBJECTOR.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE LANCASTER CO. EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

August 7, 1852, 10 o'clock, A. M., Association met in the Hall of the Mechanics' Institute, Lancaster—President in the Chair—Minutes of the last meeting read by Recording Secretary.

On motion, Messrs. WICKERSHAM, RAUCH and LAMBORN, were appointed a Committee to audit the Treasurer's account, and

Messrs. DRYSDALE, MARTIN and GIBBONS, a committee to report the names of officers for the next year; the President declaring his desire not to be re-elected.

The select Committee on Phonography and Phonotypy, by Dr. GIBBONS, made a full report on the subject, to which were appended letters from *Wm. Burgess*, of Columbia co., Pa.; *Geo. B. Emerson*, Boston; *James W. Stone*, of Boston; *Professor Haldeman*, of Lancaster co.; *David Parsons*, of Wellsville, Ohio; and *A. A. Forbes*, of Hinesburg, Vt.; concluding with the following resolution:

Resolved, That we recognize in the Science of Phonetics, one of the greatest educational improvements of modern times: and that we therefore recommend its speedy introduction into all the Common and High Schools of our County and State.

Which being under consideration, Mr. WICKERSHAM inquired whether the committee were prepared to explain the manner of the application of Phonetics to the teaching of the old mode of Orthography; the report and all the accompanying letters asserting its utility in that respect.

DR. GIBBONS, stated that he was not prepared to give a satisfactory reply to that question, but relied upon the statement of the gentlemen who had written to the committee, that the new science was the best mode of teaching the old.

Mr. WICKERSHAM bore testimony to the ability of the report. From hearing it and knowledge derived from other sources, he believed the science of Phonetics to be based on philosophical principles. It has one letter for each sound in the language and only one sound attached to each letter. This is a great advantage over the present system; and in this respect the English, language is very inferior to most others, ancient and modern,and seems to need some reformation. Perhaps the time has arrived for this change, and perhaps this is the proper means of accomplishing it. He would not say it was not. On this subject his opinions have latterly undergone some change. Still he was not prepared now to vote on the resolution, and would prefer that it should remain under consideration till next meeting.

Mr. LAMBORN was not prepared to explain the mode of making Phonotypy instrumental in teaching the present system of Orthography; but was satisfied that it does effect this object, by the assertion of the highly respectable gentleman who had written to the committee; and was therefore prepared now to adopt the resolution, and try the system in his own school.

Adjourned till 1½ o'clock, P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Mr. EVAN PUGH, (of Chester co.) said that about six years ago he had applied himself to the science and system of Phonetics; and that for some time after his power to spell correctly in the old mode seemed to be somewhat impaired. This was also the experience of some others. But this difficulty soon disappears, and a little practice restores the former knowledge. This, however, cannot apply to children who are learning to read in the first instance. To them it is an invaluable aid. It alone interests the child, because there is such an obvious agreement between the letter and the sound intended to be represented, that the learner is pleased with the agreement and excited to proceed by the interesting analysis of words into the component sounds which he is continually making. In addition to this, the form of the letter always representing the same sound, the child is not kept back and confused by the opposite state of things which every where exists in the old alphabet. This interest renders the school-room pleasant, and is one of the chief reasons for its adoption. It will put an end to that state of things which now causes the child to dislike the school-room—to look upon it as a place of torment, and only to wish for the hour of dismission. That Phonotypy is the best mode of teaching old orthography is admitted by all who have seen it tested. Being based on sound philosophical principles, and consequently the easiest mode of learning the nature of sounds and their formation into words, it must be the best mode of *commencing* the instruction of the youthful mind in the science and analysis of sound. After the correct principles of the sounds of the language are thus acquired, and the pupil accustomed to apply them, the next step—that of learning the old system of orthography—must be made with greater ease than if undertaken without this preparation. It is probably in this way that Phonetics aid the acquisition of common orthography.

Mr. DRYSDALE remarked that this is a radical movement. He could not coincide in all that had been said, but would not discuss its merits now. He was of opinion that the society had better not take any hasty action upon it. He liked the report very much. It was a strong representation of one side of the question; but it must be remembered that there is another side. He would prefer that it should lay over till the next meeting, for more mature consideration.

Dr. GIBBONS had not turned much attention to the subject till lately; but the more he learned of it, the more he was convinced that Phonotypy does offer those facilities for the acquirement of knowledge by children which the old system has failed to present in the same degree. He was so satisfied of this that he was prepared to aid in offering inducements to a good phonetic Teacher to locate in his vicinity.—But, on the whole, thought it better that the resolution should be postponed till the next meeting.

Mr. WICKERSHAM agreed that the postponement would be best for the system itself, inasmuch as it would spread and prolong discussion; and moved:

That the report be received and published; the resolution postponed till the next meeting, and that in the meantime the same committee procure and lay before the Association information as to the mode of teaching the present system of Orthography by means of the Phonotypic.

This resolution was unanimously adopted.

The auditing Committee then reported as follows, and their report was adopted:

The Committee appointed to audit the account of the Treasurer, beg leave respectfully to report: That they have examined said account with the accompanying vouchers, and find it correct, and a balance due the Treasurer of 12½ cents. The Committee recommend that 50 cts. be the quota of each member to meet the expenses during the ensuing year.

J. P. WICKERSHAM,
C. H. RAUCH,
E. LAMBORN,
Committee.

The Committee on nominations reported as follows; and, on motion, their report was unanimously adopted, and the former officers with the two new ones therein named, declared elected for the next year:

Your Committee would respectfully report that the interests of the Society will be best served by the re-election of the officers of the past year for the ensuing year: The vacancies in the standing Committee being supplied with the names of C. H. Rauch and J. F. Huston.

Although Mr. Burrowes has signified his wish to be released from the duties of the Presidency, your Committee would not consider his declination as absolute; and as the addition of a few to the list of members, who are represented as witholding their names because all the officers of the Society are not practical teachers, would fall far short of compensating the Society for his loss from the Chair, Mr. Burrowes is hereby requested to yield to the urgent and unanimous voice of the Association, and serve us as our Presiding Officer.

On motion, and in the absence of Mr. Howard W. Gilbert, the Secretary read an essay "*On Arithmetic*" prepared by that gentleman at the request of the Association at its last meeting.

Mr. Burrowes read a paper "*On the mode of examining teachers*," also prepared at the request of the Association.

Mrs. Lamborn, at the request of the Association, read a paper On the *propriety of teaching good manners in schools*, being one of the subjects for discussion reported at the last meeting.

On motion, all these papers were accepted by the Association, and ordered to be printed as a part of its transactions.

Mr. LAMBORN offered a resolution, expressing regreat that several Boards of Directors in the county had fixed this day for their examination of Teachers; thereby preventing many from attending the association. After considerable discussion the resolution was laid on the table.

On motion of Mr. MARTIN, *Saturday, Nov.* 13, 1852, was fixed as the time for the next meeting of the Association.

On motion of Mr. WICKERSHAM, *Strasburg borough* was agreed upon as the place of the next meeting; and Messrs. *D. S. Kieffer, Jacob Bower*, Dr. *S. Keneagy, David Miller* and *James McPhail, Esq.*, were appointed the *local Committee* to make preparations for the meeting.

On motion, J. P. Wickersham, E. Lamborn, and Thos. H. Burrowes, were appointed Delegates to represent this Association at the approaching session of the American Association for the advancement of Education.

On motion, the Association adjourned till 13 Nov. 1852, at 10 o'clock, A. M., at Strasburg.

ON ARITHMETIC.

BY H. W. GILBERT.

Early youth is the age of perception, and the introduction to such studies as it is intended a child should pursue should be regulated accordingly. This is the time for memorizing letters and those parts of arithmetic which are strictly matters of perception and memory. Numeration should then be taught thoroughly. It should follow the memorizing of tables, inasmuch as it requires more reflection to understand it perfectly than is required in order to comprehend the construction of the ordinary tables. Especial care should be taken to impress upon the mind of the pupil that the value of any given figure depends upon the relative position it occupies; for instance the figure 3, in the units' place represents simply three individuals, while with a cipher placed to the right it becomes 3 tens, or thirty, &c. The division of any number of figures into periods of three, and the general name of each *period* should be distinctly impressed upon his mind. If he is thoroughly exercised in this way, he will hereafter find but little difficulty in denoting any given number.

The reflective powers should be put into exercise as soon as is consistent with nature, but never overstrained. Great disadvantages, which but few, either

teachers or directors ever realize, arise from setting children to work at what is positively beyond the reach of their powers. This principle is realized fully in the grosser manifestations, even by the ignorant and unreflecting; for example, every one understands the injurious effects resulting from over-physical exertion, from imposing upon a child a manual task beyond his strength. But its application to the mind is made by comparatively few. The results of infringing the laws of nature are, nevertheless, equally certain in both cases. We are convinced that much of the apparent and real mental imbecility witnessed in our schools is the result of the profound ignorance of this principle which so generally prevails. Intelligent teachers are sometimes forced by the imprudence of directors and parents, decidedly anxious for progress, to violate their own convictions, in this regard. We have heard a teacher of large experience declare his conviction that no pupil should be permitted to commence written arithmetic until he had attained the age of ten.

A complete course of mental arithmetic, with thorough practical exemplifications of fractions should always precede written aaithmetic. Half an hour spent in the *practice* of arithmetic is, with most scholars, better than a whole day's theorizing. Let not a teacher disdain to use an apple in default of a set of models. If it were not invidious we would recommend Emerson's arithmetic as incomparably superior to all others in this respect. His treatise on fractions is almost a course in logic. Clear and well-arranged, proceeding by degrees from the easier to the more difficult, and thus gradually calling into activity the reflective faculties, it is admirably calculated to discipline the mind, and do away with, or rather prevent, the falling into those habits of mental dependence and implicit reliance upon others, which are so subversive of all originality and confidence in one's own mental integrity. For this reason quite young children should never be supplied with books which render frequent assistance from the teacher necessary.

The blackboard should be constantly employed, even with a class in oral arithmetic. A principle can thus be exemplified, in a variety of ways, before a whole class, in the same time which is required to elucidate it to a single individual. After the performance of abundant examples by the teacher, the majority of the class will generally be able to perform all the examples in a case in fractions without any further assistance. It is always much better to devote a day, or even two, to the thorough understanding of one application of a principle, than to hurry on before it is distinctly understood, thus accumulating a mass of ill-digested matter in the mind, which, in most cases, remains forever, a complete chaos, from which the unfortunate victim of stupidity finds it impossible to educe system and order.

A culpable error on the part of those entrusted with the education of youth, is the requiring of too much in a given time. It seems to be, in some directions, no uncommon idea, that with economy of time, and a very disinterested devotion on the part of teachers, all knowledge may be exhausted in the comparatively brief space of six months, and that a twelve month for this purpose is a magnificent allotment of time, with which the most unreasonable should regard themselves as highly favored. The vulgar standard in this, as in all other studies, is the number of pages despatched, and the crown of mastership is having "gone through the book."

ON TEACHING GOOD MANNERS IN SCHOOLS.

BY MRS. LAMBORN.

To the Association:

At the last meeting of the Association, the committee appointed to report business for the meeting, reported among other subjects this question: "Is the teaching of good manners a part of school education?" A request was then made that some one should address the August meeting on that subject, or write an essay to be read before the association. No particular person was designated to perform this task, each one being left at liberty to prepare one for the occasion. In accordance with this understanding, I have prepared a short essay; which with your indulgence, I shall read to you. It is short, because, first, all being included in the request, it was to be expected that several essays would be presented, which if lengthy, would appropriate too much time of the association. Secondly the question can be answered in a few words.

I answer the question in the affirmative, giving a few simple reasons why good manners should be considered a branch of education.

My first reason is that many children not having the advantage of home teaching, the school is the only place where they can be taught politeness.—Secondly, the influence of a correct home training is often counteracted by the influence of impolite associates at school. Thirdly, the good effect upon the teacher himself, who will be thus restrained from the use of impolite words. To teach politeness, it is absolutely necessary that the teacher be polite himself. As the teacher who says "John, give me them books," violates, by his example, the rule of grammar which he teaches in the book, so will his own impoliteness counteract all the politeness he may teach. If the teacher never deigns to say "please" to his pupils, how can he expect them to use it in their intercourse with their companions. I once called the attention of a little girl who had been a pupil of mine to an incorrect word in her conversation. "Oh!" she replied, "I know better, but I am so used to speak so at school." "And why do you speak so at school," I asked. "O," said she,

"the scholars would laugh at me if I spoke otherwise." "Do they laugh at the teacher?" I continued. To which she replied, "He talks in that way himself." Here then was a direct effect of the teacher's example. So with the teaching of politeness. The teacher must be polite himself to be able to teach his pupils.

Fourthly. The chief distinction between the common school and the *Academy* and *Seminary* will be done away. A parent wishes to give his child a good, substantial, plain, education: he sends him to his district school to an *excellent teacher*. His neighbor wishes his child to have a similar education, and sends him to a boarding school. The former is mortified at finding his child, although the equal of the other in knowledge and even in moral and religious education, behind him in politeness. The parent is perhaps himself ignorant, and feels his want of education, and is resolved that his child shall not feel the same want. For this he gives him a good education; but is grieved to find that his awkward and ungainly manners throw him behind his inferiors in knowledge; who by their easy and polite behavior, appear to better advantage, and pass more easily into good society. 'Tis the outside polish that is first seen, and which gives the ignorant the advantage that *the mere scholar* has not.

The teaching of politeness, seems, therefore in the present day, to be the main distinction between the boarding school and the *good* common school. Let the teaching of politeness be considered a branch of school education, and the distinction will cease to exist: and parents who wish their children to have what ought to be a common school education, will not be compelled to send them to obtain it, away from the school of their district.

ON THE MODE OF EXAMINING TEACHERS.

BY T. H. BURROWES.

A number of points are to be determined by those to whom the difficult and important task of selecting instructors for the rising generation is entrusted.—The most prominent of these are:

1. The *extent* of the applicant's knowledge.
2. The *kind* of his knowledge.
3. His *power* of imparting it.
4. His mode of *government*.
5. His *experience* in teaching.
6. His *moral* character and standing.

Though this is probably the order in which these points usually present themselves in the progress of Examinations, yet the reverse of it is their order in relative importance.

Without good moral character no one should be employed as a teacher, whatever may be his natural qualifications, learning or experience. So in case of experience—natural capacity, learning and character, being equal—the teacher of practiced knowledge in his profession ought always to be preferred to the mere beginner. And—character and experience being satisfactory—the manifest power of imparting knowledge to others, should always give the preference to him who possesses it, over all others of equal learning, but deficient in this indispensable professional qualification.

Thus though mere learning should never, of itself, entitle its possessor to an appointment, yet as no one ought to be selected without it; and, as in the process of ascertaining its presence, the possession of most of the other essential requisites may be determined, it is the point usually first investigated, if not most regarded.

Before entering upon the formal examination of a list of applicants, it is necessary to determine *who* shall conduct it—*how* it shall be conducted, and *what* branches shall be required: The examination alluded to being, of course, that of applicants to a Board of Directors for Common School Teacherships.

Boards often deem themselves unqualified to conduct an examination, and employ some one to perform the duty for them. This is altogether proper; and no directors should suppose themselves unfit for their general duties, because they may not have sufficient confidence in themselves to discharge this.

But great care should be taken in the selection of the Exminer. As a general rule he ought not to be a Teacher of the same grade of school in the same or in an adjoining district. This is objectionable, not only because candidates naturally dislike being subjected to examination by a mere equal, but because in many cases the examiner may indulge in the desire to puzzle the applicant in order to show off his assumed learning at their expense, or may make unpleasant remarks afterwards. It is far preferable to obtain the service of some liberally educated person, residing, if possible, within the district, and therefore feeling an interest in the schools; or, if there be a respectable Academy or Seminary in the vicinity, its principal will, in all likelihood, possess the knowledge and experience requisite for the task, in a higher degree than most others; and as these institutions depend, in a great measure, for the preparation of their pupils upon the Common Schools, it will be his interest to aid in the selection, for them, of the best teachers that can be obtained.

But, whoever may be the examiner, the Board should always be present. By this means alone can each member obtain that knowledge of the appearance and deportment of the candidates, of their readiness in expressing their ideas, of their aptness at illustrations, of their fitness to impart knowledge and other essential characteristics, which are quite as important as learning.

The manner of the examination may be either written or oral.

Written examinations—sometimes adopted—possess the single superiority of fully manifesting the applicants handwriting, knowledge of orthography and power of expressing his thoughts in written composition. But these may be readily and sufficiently fully ascertained, in a few minutes, by appropriate exercises during oral examination. It is also supposed that time is saved by the written mode. But this would seem to be a mistake; for, it will occupy as much of the examiner's time to prepare the written questions in all the branches taught, and to read all the answers of all the applicants, as to examine each of them orally.

On the other hand, the oral mode has many advantages: It affords the examiner and the Board a full opportunity of becoming acquainted with each candidate's appearance, deportment, power of expressing himself, and, in a word, with all those outward characteristics which can only be thus ascertained, and which are so essential in the government and instruction of youth. And, as the teacher's office mainly consists in the imparting of information orally, the ascertainment of his possession of the power of verbal explanation and communication should be a chief object in his examination, and that mode of examination always preferred which best accomplishes this object.

The examination should also be private, that is not in the presence of other applicants. It is sufficiently trying for the candidates to be forced to exhibit their mental powers and acquirements in the presence of those who are officially to pass upon them—a duty always delicate and irksome in itself—without being also compelled to parade them in the presence of others who can have no interest in the display, except the gratification of mere idle curiosity. It has been asserted that public examinations are calculated to prevent the abuse of their powers by Directors, in the appointment of incompetent persons. But here the reply is, that if a Board exist sufficiently corrupt to prostitute their office in this manner, the check of a public examination would form a very feeble barrier against the evil.

Finally, the place of examination should be supplied with a blackboard, for the illustration of the candidate's power of using this most valuable instrument of instruction. He who can readily perform an arithmetical process upon it, or draw and explain a geometrical figure, or form a diagram exhibiting to the eye any matter susceptible of such illustration, will be found to possess one of the practical teacher's best powers. A sketch of the terrestrial globe, for instance, with its circles, zones, parallels, meridians, &c., followed by an explanation of each, will not only effect this object, but display more knowledge of the fundamental principles of Geography in five minutes, than a verbal examination of half an hour without it.

The branches of knowledge to be possessed by the applicant and to be the subject of examination, are by our school laws, left discretionary with Directors.

But it would seem that the essential branches of Orthography, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography and English Grammar, ought to be possessed in a sound degree by every one who undertakes to teach even the lowest common school. If to these be added History, especially of the United States, Book-keeping, Algebra, Mensuration and Geometry it will be all the better; and the system will never have commenced to perform its full office, till all these are not only possessed by the teacher, but taught in every school. At present, however, Directors must accept the best teachers whom the times and the neglect of the Legislature have left within their reach.

These and similar preliminary measures being settled, the *extent* of the applicant's knowledge will naturally be the first subject of examination, commencing with the lowest branches.

No precise directions can here be given as to the kind of questions, or the number necessary, to determine the candidate's knowledge. As good a way as any is to begin with asking a definition of the science in question, and thence to follow up any train of queries that may suggest themselves to the examiner's mind, or grow out of the shape of the previous replies, till he is satisfied.

A few rules, however, should always be held in view. One is to put about the same number of questions and of similar character as to difficulty, to each applicant, so as the more certainly to determine their relative degree of information. Another is, never to put a question merely designed to puzzle, but only such as are fairly calculated to test the candidate's knowledge of the subject. The puzzling system is cruel and unfair, at the same time that it effects no good end. It is also a good rule not to correct the applicant in case of an erroneous answer, or to lose time by entering into a discussion with him. The object of the examination is neither to show off the examiner's knowledge, nor to instruct the candidate; but simply to ascertain the amount of his knowledge.

The *kind* of knowledge possessed by the candidate is very important. Some may have the definition of every rule in some standard work on arithmetic and the formula for applying it, at their fingers end; may in geography, bound every country in the world,—tell the capital, rivers and mountains of every nation; or repeat every rule in Kirkham or Smith; and yet have a very imperfect knowledge of the first and essential principals of arithmetic, geography and grammar. On the contrary, others may, to a greater or less extent, fail in the memorised details of those sciences, and yet have their minds thoroughly imbued with their fundamental principles. The former are of the class of human machines in old times called school masters, and should be avoided. Their

knowledge neither radiates like light, combines by affinity, nor infuses the mental caloric of life and energy. It is an inert mass, beaten into themselves against the sympathy of their own will, and incapable of being made to penetrate and vivify the intellects and hearts of others. The latter are teachers—cultivators of mind and sentiment—and alone worthy of employment and confidence.

The Teacher's power of *imparting* his knowledge, cannot, of course, be definitely ascertained by an examination; but a considerable degree of light may be thrown upon this most essential characteristic, during its course. If he be brief, lucid, and clear in his answers: if his words be plain and simple, such as children can comprehend; and, above all, if he readily and often revert to, and base himself on first principles, and have the habit of apt and familiar illustration, both orally and on the blackboard, he will rarely fail to prove an instructive and interesting teacher. If, on the contrary, he do not possess a ready command of plain language; if he be confused and immethodical in the framing of his replies; if he seem to lack confidence in his own knowledge and conclusions, or seek to wrap up his ignorance or doubt in big words or roundabout phrases, he is not the man to interest and attract the young mind, and will most assuredly fail as a teacher. A strict attention to these features in his character should be kept up during the whole course of the examination, as the best mode of ascertaining his power to impart knowledge; and his success or failure in these particulars, ought to have great weight in the final selection.

Neither can any certain knowledge of the candidate's actual system of *School government* be obtained by an examination. Still, he should be questioned upon it. His replies to supposed cases of difficulty in discipline, &c., will, if he be a young teacher, at least show whether he has seriously pondered on this most important branch of duty. If an experienced one, they will bring out some account of his actual practice in similar cases. It may be replied, that it will be easy for one of ordinary sagacity to describe, on such an occasion, a fine and plausible system of School government, which he may never have reduced to practice. True: but if, after a profession thus formally made, be he employed by those to whom it was made, the probability is that he will feel bound to verify his words by his subsequent actions. So that a few questions on this subject may benefit the teacher as well as the District, and can in no event do harm.

As to *experience* and *character*, little need be added to what has already been remarked. The usual evidence of both are the certificates of other Boards, or of former employers. It unfortunately happens that these certificates are some times awarded when not merited. This is a grave crime against the Common School system. Every Board of Directors employing a new teacher feels its utter dependence on papers of this kind, in relation, especially, to moral character and former history. This feeling ought, and no doubt in most cases does, impose the conscientious obligation of not bestowing similar testimonials, unless honestly and fully merited. This rule is no less due to the profession than the youth of the State.

A similar remark as to the result of examinations will conclude this sketch. Whenever they shall be fairly and intelligently conducted, and the preference *only* given to the best qualified among the applicants—even though those preferred be not perfect in all things—an invaluable step will have been gained in the progress of the system. Favoritism and nepotism being thus openly excluded from the Board, and incompetency among teachers discountenanced; the improving and aspiring and honorably ambitious members of the profession will be cheered to renewed effort; and our whole educational system, from the lowest A. B. C. school to the highest college, must finally experience the healthful and invigorating change.

School Law.

Decisions of the Superintendent of Common Schools.

School Directors are not authorized by law to admit scholars from adjoining districts into the schools of their own, except in the manner provided in division XI, section 16, of the school law. If without authority of law, they permit scholars from other districts to attend their schools, they can not recover compensation from those districts, or from the persons whose duty it is to educate the children. In the absence of such arrangement as the law provides, no implied contract exists upon which an action can be maintained, and compensation recovered.

Township and borough Auditors are required to make annual settlement with the School Treasurer of their district. There is no provision made by law to pay them for performing this duty, and they cannot therefore legally claim or receive pay for such service.

A School Treasurer failing to perform the duties required of him by law, may be removed from office by the board of Directors, who may fill the vacancy thus created, and suit may be instituted against the delinquent Treasurer for any money due by him to the district.

School Directors may erect as many school houses in their respective districts as may be needed for school purposes, but no more. If the old houses are too small, or for any cause are not suitable for the purpose, the Directors may erect others.

Under no circumstances can School Directors be justified in paying extra compensation to the Treasurer for collecting school tax, or he in receiving it; and this cannot be done even where the Directors had agreed to do so, for they have no authority to make such agreement, so far as the public funds are concerned. Both parties would be acting contrary

to express provisions of law, and would both therefore subject themselves to prosecution and penalty. The Treasurer is entitled to two per cent. on all collections made by him, and not one farthing more can be legally or justifiably paid to him for such service out of the school funds.

The refusal of an ex-Treasurer to pay over the School funds in his possession on demand, is evidence that he has used them for his private purposes, which is an offence which subjects him to criminal prosecution.

School Treasurers are not entitled to per centage on the warrant for their district's share of the State appropriation, nor to any other compensation except that allowed by express provision of law.

The President of the board of Directors has the same right to vote that any other Director has.

The office of Constable does not disqualify its possessor from serving as School Treasurer, but the Treasurer can not issue the warrant required by the 27th section of the School law to himself. Therefore, if the Constable accepts the office of Treasurer, he must appoint some other person collector of School tax.

RESPONSIBILITY OF DIRECTORS.

"We give the following report of a case in the court of Montgomery county, furnished to the Superintendent by one of the attorneys engaged, to show how stringently the courts will enforce the law against School Directors who fail to perform their duty. In this case it does not appear that the Directors really had entirely neglected to perform their duty, but had not, for the causes assigned, performed it at the time the law directs.

The court therefore suspended judgment for a sufficient length of time to enable the Directors to fulfil the entire requirements of the law, and the result of the case will thus depend upon the further action of the Directors.

"A petition was recently presented to the Court of Quarter Sessions of Montgomery county, signed by six taxables of Limerick School District, avering that the school directors had neglected to asess a school tax, &c., and asking the court to turn them out and appoint other directors.

"This petition was presented at May term, whereupon the court granted a rule returnable the 14th of June, and directing the school directors to answer within ten days after notice.

"An answer was filed within the ten days, showing that the school directors had organized, and appointed all the officers required by the school law, that the first meeting was held on the 24th of April, and were not able at that meeting to levy a tax by the votes of *four members* of the board, that the matter was postponed to their next meeting; that their second meeting was held on the 22d of May, when among other things the board by a full vote agreed to levy a tax, and the President notified the Superintendent.—This answer was filed May 27.

"On the 14th of June, on return of the rule aforesaid, the above answer remaining uncontradicted, and the school directors aforesaid further showing to the court, that after the answer filed, to wit, on the 29th of May, 1852, another meeting of said board was held, at which time a duplicate of school tax was made out and said duplicate with warrant for collection placed in the hands of the Treasury of said board, the tax levied being $764,27, a certificate of which, properly attested, had been forwarded to the Superintendent and that this last meeting had been delayed in consequence of the President of the board being called upon and sworn as a juror in the court, and there detained until the afternoon of the 29th of May aforesaid.

"Upon this showing the court expressed an opinion that the directors were not guilty of the neglect of duty complained of, and ordered the case to remain open until August court, to enable complainants to consider the matter, suggesting that probably the petioners would withdraw the complaint."—*Lawrence Journal.*

IMPORTANT LAW CASE.—SUPREME COURT.—R. A. & J. J. Williams & Co. *vs.* The Controler of the Public Schools of the First School District in Pa., owners, and John Lewis, contractor—Error to the District Court—This was a scire facias upon a mechanic's lien, filed against the Roxborough Public School House (6th section) for lumber furnished in the erection of the same. The Controllers pleaded that school house in question was the property of the County,&c., and therefore not subject to a mechanic's lien; to which plea the plaintiffs demurred, as "The Controllers," &c., were a separate and independent corporation from the county of Philadelphia, &c.—The Court below entered judgment for defendants, which the Supreme Court have affirmed. Opinion delivered by Judge Lowrie. John Clayton for plaintiffs in error; G. M. Wharton and G. Emlin for defendants in error.—*Montgomery Watchman.*

Animal Chemistry.

How seldom do we give a thought to the organization of the "house we live in," or the manner in which it is strengthened or undermined! We seem to think that it can take care of itself exactly as well without our aid as with it, and better too, perhaps. We don't reflect that, after all, we are mere animal, chemical machines, and that various substances combined in the human stomach, present the same phenomena that they would in the receivers of a chemist's laboratory. For example, we see it stated that "without lime the secretion of milk fails;" the bones and teeth become soft, or are arrested in their development; without soda, no bile can be formed; without phosphorus and magnesia, the nervous tissues lose their energy, and the impaired condition of the brain is evinced by the loss of memory, frightful headaches and impending paralysis.

Ghastly paleness, prostration, faintness and coldness attend the lack of carbon; deprived of sulphur, the hair would rapidly cease to grow; and the absence of iron is marked by lividity, disordered digestion, passive dropsy, and other symptoms of an anæmic or chlorotic character. The food we receive daily furnishes the natural source of these elementary substances, and serves, during health, to repair the waste of these matters through the skin, kidneys and other excretories, consequent upon the voluntary and vegetable functions of the economy. Hence the equilibrium is preserved. Inordinate use of particular organs induces a disproportionate consumption of their substances, and hence of the elements from which this substance is formed. Excesses in watching, thought and muscular effort, for example, by overtaxing the brain and muscular fibre, render the tissues rapidly effete, and therefore cause an exaggerated demand for their peculiar *pabulum*, as phosphorus and iron.—*St. Louis Times.*

Orginal Communications

METHOD OF TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

As the description of the Naylor system at the April meeting of our Association has turned the attention of the readers of the Journal to the subject, I will mention a system somewhat different and free from the disadvantages said to be attendent on that system.

The Capitals, for example, are given out by one of the pupils. The rest of the class repeat the same simultaneously. The *monitor* frequently gives out the name of the States alone (*and promiscuously too,*) of which the class simultaneously answer the capitals; and I never knew an instance in which a class was not able, in two weeks' practice of once a day, to answer every capital in the world; nor in a very short time more, for every pupil of the class, *singly*, to answer the same questions, together with their situations, &c. In the school taught by me last winter, I had a class, none of which had ever studied geography or history in any other way, who can now answer (most of them singly,) the capitals of all the countries in the world, with the situations of many of those in America and Europe: the Presidents of the United States, where from, how long they served, &c., and that not only in regular order alone, but who was the eighth, the sixth, and so on. Therefore, the doubts which some labor under, that even *names* can be successfully taught by the concert method, may be removed: although I admit the one described to be somewhat different from Naylor's. The same class practised the chanting of tables by the concert system, but in regular order. These, I admit, are not taught so correctly; as I find, by asking them miscellaneous questions, that they are not so generally known.

Thus, I think, it is clearly proven that if Naylor's system is deficient in teaching that which requires judgment, it can be successfully used in teaching mere names, which require only the exercise of memory. It may be that a few modifications are necessary: and this difference between my mode of teaching geography and of tables, may cause the difference in the proficiency of the pupils: the former being taught more in accordance with Naylor's system, than the latter; which are chanted in a regular song, without a separate prompter.

Yet, even the tables are thus taught as well as by any other mode; and with much less trouble to the teacher.

E. Lamborn.

W. Lampeter, Lancaster Co., June, 1852.

THE GOOD AND THE BAD TEACHER.

Mr. Editor:—If you think the following dialogue between two boys in adjoining townships will be of any service to your readers, I don't apprehend the boys will be offended at me for sending it to you, if I only give their initials:

Q. Have you a good school in your district?

A. If long sessions and long tasks make a good school, we have.

Q. What is the object in this task exercise?

A. I know of no object but to keep us in employment, and afford the teacher leisure.

Q. How does it afford him leisure?

A. Why, with book in hand, he has only to see that we recite as it is there.

Q. Does he offer no explanations, nor require any?

A. I should not know the meaning of "explanation," if I had not learned it out of school.

Q. Do you not define words when you spell and read?

A. We give the definitions to the defined words in the spelling book. Our teacher has not told us that any other words have definitions.

Q. Are your other exercises done up in the same way?

A. Pretty much. Do you do differently in your school?

Q. Very. Our teacher requires us to tell him, in our own language, what we are going to read; and when the reading is over, he asks definitions of words in the lesson—not only long, or uncommon words, but little every day words, such as *Hence, And, For* and the like.

A. I guess we should look blank if called upon in this way; but we have nothing of the kind to fear. Are you not much puzzled to meet these demands?

Q. We were at first, but our teacher, ever and anon said, "*Think* boys, Think." It was not long until we learned to think, and now our studies are delightful.

A. Are all the schools in your township like yours?

Q. Not one of them. The others are similar to yours.

A. How is it? The same directors provide teachers for all your schools.

Q. Yes. But Pap says the householders in our district have determined to have good teachers, and if the directors won't pay, they will.

Yours, &c., Incog.

Mr. Burrowes:—With all due modesty I will ask, why in those called our best common schools, and all above, or below, whichever you please, known as High Schools, Academies, &c., do we hear the classes parsing grammar lessons; declining pronouns; conjugating verbs; reciting rules and applying them to the correction of false syntax; referring to notes and exceptions with great fluency: when possibly, neither scholars nor teachers can render a reason why there should be two pronouns for either of the three persons, singular, or plural, or define the conjunctions And, But and If? Doubtless, many of them think, as did the boy who supposed they were as the stone mason's slivers, "to fill up the cracks."

OUR FREE SCHOOL LAW.

In a former number, I took occasion to discuss the improvements which had taken place in the construction of school houses in our State, since the adoption of the present Free School Law, and I wish now to add some remarks concerning the changes in the character and qualification of teachers owing to the same influence:—In which I think it will appear that the indications of progress are equally obvious.

Before the passage of the law in question, teaching in common schools could scarcely be called a regular occupation, unless the term were applicable to a few that called themselves teachers, though notoriously incompetent, who perambulated the country, like the Wandering Jew, unable to remain long in any one locality. Few followed it as such, and no one thought of making *special* preparation to become a teacher. Many of those who pretended to teach were foreigners, and having been schooled under the rigid discipline incident to the monarchial governments of the old world, were in a great measure unfitted to train American minds.

Custom seemed to have sanctioned the idea that while mechanics, and professional men require years of study to become skilled in their occupations, *any body* could teach; and hence, at each returning autumn, hundreds unsuccessful in other callings, sought the school-room, unfit to fashion a wagon, or manage a farm, yet *well qualified* to train the immortal mind, and shape its destiny! And what was worse, the lazy—the unhealthy—the disabled—the lame—and even some almost deaf, and partly blind, were thought from these very circumstances, to be better fitted for schoolmasters, since they were fitted for nothing else. Either cane, crutches, salves, or spectacles, were an absolute necessity with most teachers. Indeed, the picture which my own childish imagination drew of a schoolmaster, was a cross, sour, limping, ugly old man; but in later days, from selfish motives, I have tried hard to efface it.

Some were also grossly immoral. Days spent in the school-room, and nights in Bacchnalian revels at a tavern were not uncommon. I have known teachers to carry their jugs of whiskey with them to their schools, and either place them in their desks, or conceal them in some neighboring bushes or woods, (which they made frequent excuses to visit,) and, when this was not tolerated by their patrons, they would take a "spree" of three or four days in a month as a compensation.

Besides, teachers in those days were generally famed tobacco users, and their pupils had sometimes to step pretty high, on approaching their desks, to clear the worn out quids that thickly strewed the floor around them. Many too were ignorant—ignorant not only of the proper mode of discipline, and of any thing approaching the best methods of developing mind; but also of the very branches they attempted to teach. A hundred times have I seen pupils take their slates to the teacher's desk for the purpose of having an arithmetical question explained, when after looking at it a few moments, a key was brought forth and the solution copied, and the inquiring student dismissed to his seat with some unintelligible explanation. More frequently still, the questions *were laid upon the table* till school closed, when under the cover of night, and without subjecting the teacher to the prying looks of the more intelligent scholars, the key came out from its hiding place, and the solution at the bidding of the nimble fingers, speedily lengthened itself out upon the pupil's slate, and was duly exhibited next morning as unmistakable evidence of the teacher's skill.

To read in a dull, sing-song manner, to write a stiff hand, to solve the problems in an arithmetic according to the rules and examples given, and copy the solutions in a large cyphering book, prepared for the purpose, and to learn definitions, constituted the chief exercises of the school-room. No maps, no apparatus, no black board existed, and no general exercises, or familiar lectures, broke its tiresome monotony.

These strictures are as applicable *now* as *then;* but there is a difference. In the personal appearance, moral character, and intellectual acquirements of teachers, there has been great improvement. Immoral teachers, and more, incompetent, may still be found; but what was formerly the general rule has become the exception. Teachers are awakening to a proper sense of the dignity and importance of their profession. They are beginning to realize the truth, that *to elevate their calling they must elevate themselves.* They are seeking light. During the period that the common schools are closed, numbers of teachers may be found in nearly every Academy and Seminary in the State. From these Institutions, and from our Normal and High Schools, hundreds of young men and young women are annually issuing, and scattering over the State to supply the increased demand for the services of teachers. They go to spread broadcast the seeds of knowledge which they have gathered; and new life, better methods of study, and systems of discipline are introduced; and dull and lifeless school-room exercises are converted into pleasant tasks, in which groups of happy children join with an eagerness which bespeaks awakened intellect.

I *know* what I say. Our own county, did space permit detail, would furnish sufficient evidence of the fact. Do not such teachers as Preston, Lamborn, Kieffer, Warfel, and many others, much more than supply the MacPhersons and MacCowans of by-gone

days? I mean no disrespect to these old teachers: some of them were excellent scholars and good men; but there has been a happy change. Enter a school at that day, and you would probably find as teacher, a sour looking man, with ferule in hand, and constraint and fear pictured on the countenances of his scholars. Enter one now, and you will most likely meet a young man, or woman, whose affectionate greeting and smiling countenance seem reflected from every little face around the room. Order may reign in both; but in one it is the effect of threat and punishment, in the other, the result of kindness and interest in study: the lessons may be equally well studied, but in the former, the recitations are constrained and dull, in the latter, full of life and animation.

Perhaps I somewhat overdraw the picture, and make the good qualities of some teachers too general; but pardon me. I can not altogether separate my knowledge of the present condition of our schools from my idea of what it should be. My commmunication, however, is sufficiently long, and I wish only to say further, that the character and qualifications of teachers have a more intimate relation to the future welfare of their pupils than parents, or perhaps teachers themselves, imagine. "As the teacher so the school," is a true saying. Let teachers weigh well their responsibility, and parents be ever mindful that they commit not the treasure of their children's talents to the keeping of those who will bury them in the earth. J. P. WICKERSHAM.

Marietta, Lan. Co., Pa.

FRIEND BURROWES.—Will some of your correspondents be good enough to show, if it be possible, that grammar is not a mass of verbiage? Why should there be ten parts of speech if all the words in our language can be distinctly classified under six? Why should we obtain our grammar technicals from a foreign, and that a dead lauguage, when we have words in our own language, significant of the offices performed by all the words in that language? Does not the article always denote one, or more? and is it not an office of the adjective to number? Then why have an article? Does not a participle always perform the office of a verb, or an adjective? Then why have a participle? Are not adverbs and conjunctions abbreviated expressions? Then would it not be better to have a suitable name for them (say contractions) and *define their meaning*, in the parsing lesson, than to tell what they *connect*, *disconnect* and *qualify?* Is an interjection susceptible of definition? Then why say it is part of any sentence?

Thomas Burrowes is the name of a man, and every three year old child in the city of Lancaster, or elsewhere, who is acquainted with him, knows it is his *name;* but it requires a twelve year old several days to learn that it is a *noun*. A Latin boy would know it at sight. If pronouns are substitutes for the names of persons and things, why not say so? Similar objections apply to other technicals. A. G.

County Superintendent.

MR. HALL:—Knowing you to be a practical Educationalist, and disposed to favor the improvement of our Common Schools, I am induced to solicit a place in your columns for the purpose of presenting some thoughts in relation to the expediency of establishing a County Superintendent. The propriety or expediency of the measure has been much agitated, by teachers and others interested, in different sections of the State; but has not been sufficiently noticed by the public press.

In my intercourse with teachers and others who have given the subject some attention, I have not heard a dissenting voice. It is a matter of extreme regret, that our Common Schools are so much inferior in point of efficiency, to the Schools of other States. The reason is obvious. The Common Schools of New York and the Eastern States, are exclusively under the *control* of Educationists—while those of Pennsylvania are left to the *supervision* of men of all professions and callings, from the most learned *professor*, down to the most *illiterate* individual in the country. They are among the most important of all our institutions, and are worthy the fostering care of every statesman and philanthropist. To them, to a great extent, we must look for the perpetuity of the *republican* principles of "VIRTUE, LIBERTY, AND INDEPENDENCE." The idea, of equality between the various classes, whether rich or poor, mighty or humble—inculcated in the School-room and exhibited during the hours of recreation, is the first, and most powerful incentive to the principles of a pure *Democracy*—which, being indelibly impressed upon the youthful mind, becomes the *rule* of action in manhood. Place our Common School system on an equality with that of New York State, and it is sufficient to afford every youth in the Commonwealth an excellent education; equal if not superior in practical importance, to that obtained in our Academies and Colleges. Other States boast of having effected this.

We, also, can effect like results, if we place our Schools under the regulation of *practical* men. When the ineffective operation of our country Schools is spoken of, the Directors are generally accused of mismanagement, because the law requires them to select competent teachers, and subsequently to direct them in their perplexing avocation, or to remove them for incompetency. But to require this of Directors, they must not only be men of good education, but intimately acquainted with the best and most approved methods of giving instruction, which can not be expected, as Directors are usually engaged in pursuits widely different from that of teaching. The *modus operandi of "teaching the young idea how to shoot,"* is a more difficult one than many suppose; even the best teachers are sometimes in doubt as to the best mode of imparting instruction and enforcing discipline; and of course a more extensive knowledge of the art of teaching could not be expected of Directors, whose minds are constantly engaged in avocations foreign to the one they are by law required to direct. Directors and Teachers are both frequently the objects of unjust censure—the former for not

making a better selection, and the latter for want of skill or experience; while both are generally found, (to the best of their knowledge and ability,) using every exertion for the advantage of the Schools under their *charge*; and where proper encouragement has been given, much has been accomplished.

If something were done to elevate the reputation of the Common Schools, by the introduction of a regular system of School government and discipline; we would soon have plenty of competent professional teachers—but as it is, disgust drives the best out of the employment, to seek more congenial associations. It will undoubtedly be asked by some, how can this be done? In answer, I will briefly state, that the same difficulties have been obviated in other places by the appointment of one competent person in each county, for the purpose of seperintending the Common Schools—whose business consists in visiting the Schools successively, taking with him such specimens or plans of the best Schools, and leaving such instructions as he may deem essential to the best interests of both teachers and scholars. An officer with such powers, if competent and energetic, would relieve the Directors of a great amount of labor, which but few have the ability to perform, and would be of incalculable advantage to many districts, by keeping up a harmonious co-operation between teachers, directors, pupils, and parents. He would also be the medium of communication between the State Superintendent and the Directors of the different districts.

The appointment of such an officer has been strongly urged at different times by the State Superintendent, but as yet, no action has been taken by the Legislature. I hope that every person interested in the education of the rising generation, will use all laudable means to have this effected, during the next session of our Legislature. Let petitions be circulated in the various districts, and forwarded at the commencement of the session, praying that honorable body to pass an act granting each county in the State one Superintendent, and I have every reason to believe that our prayers will be favorably considered.

[*Huntingdon Jour.*] A Teacher.

CRAYONS.

Almost every school-room in our Commonwealth is provided with blackboards. On these thousands of blackboards chalk is almost universally employed. There are many objections to the use of chalk, not the least of which is, that after the problem is performed, the fingers and clothes are of a *dirty white* color. We have known many pupils who seemed averse to being "up to the chalk" for no other reason. Crayons are far preferable. Could they generally be employed, it would be a favor done to some delicate hands, not to say a large amount of wearing apparel. White crayons may be made simply of Paris White, or Spanish White, which is nearly the same thing, and wheat flour and water. The correct proportions are five pounds of Paris White, one pound of flour, and sufficient water to make a dough of these materials, hard enough not to crumble, and soft enough to roll. Pellets of these are then rolled out into cylinders about the size of a pipe stem, and laid away in a warm place, or in the sun, to dry; the drying will generally require from twelve to twenty-four hours. The process of rolling may be performed upon a table, or any flat board. This process will be expedited somewhat, and the crayons be of a more equal size, if a rolling-board is employed; which is simply a strip of board, say a foot in length, and eight or ten inches in width, with a handle on top, and with edges a third of an inch in thickness upraised on the side of the lower surface, on which it may slide back and forth, as the crayons are rolled. With an apparatus simple as this, crayons may be made with great rapidity and cheapness. Every school has some lad of skill enough fo manufacture them with ease. The expense is scarcely greater than that of chalk, and much less than that of chalk sawn in prisms, which some employ.

How to Speak to Children.—It is usual to attempt the management of children either by corpos ral punishment or by rewards addressed to the senses and by words alone. There is another means of government, the power and importance of which are seldom regarded—we refer to the human voice. A blow may be inflicted on a child, accompanied by words so uttered as to counteract entirely its intended effect; or the parent may use language in the correction of the child, not objectionable in itself, yet spoken in a tone which more than defeats its influence. What is it which lulls the infant to repose? It is not an array of mere words. There is no charm to the untaught one in letters, syllables and sentences; it is the sound which strikes the little ear, that soothes and composes it to sleep. A few notes, however unskilfully arranged, if uttered in a soft tone, are found to possess a magic influence. Think we this influence is confined to the cradle? No; it is diffused over every age, and cease not while the child remains under the parental roof. Is the boy growing rude, rough, and boisterous in speech? No instrument is so sure to control these tendancies as the gentle tones of a mother's voice. She who speaks to her son harshly does but give to his conduct the sanction of her example; she pours oil on the already raging flames. In the pressure of duty, we are often liable to speak hastily to children; perhaps a threat is expressed in loud and irritating tone. Instead of allaying the passions of the child, it serves directly to increase them; every fretful expression awakes in him the same spirit which produced it. So does a pleasant voice call up agreeable feelings. Whatever disposition therefore, we would encourage in a child, the same we would manifest in the tone in which we address it.

A Good Example.—For the past three years, the Messrs. Hoe & Co., the eminent Printing Press Manufacturers, have maintained at their own expense an evening school for the instruction of their apprentices and employees, in Mathematics, and Exact Sciences, Mechanical Drawing, the French and English Language, &c. Every one of their many apprentices is required to give a punctual attendance at the school which is also open to such adult members of the establishment as choose to attend. Two teachers, Messrs. O'Gorman and Dick, are regularly employed, and Prof. Hyatt has just been engaged to give a course of lectures on Experimental Philosophy, which are now being delivered, and will close the winter term. They are attended by nearly all the workmen as well as all the apprentices. We mention these facts, because we consider them worthy of being imitated by other large employers of laboring men.—*New York Tribune.*

An Extensive Library.—The State of New York has one of the largest and most useful libraries in the world. It contains 1,506,076 volumes, and occupies more than 11,000 apartments—one in each School District in the State.—*Sunday School Advocate.*

MULTIPLICITY of RULES IN ARITHMETIC.

In the June No. of *The Journal* will be found articles on Arithmetic by Messrs. Rauch and Lamborn, in reply to one I wrote on the same subject for the May No. As both my worthy friends appear to be honest searchers after truth, and ready to receive the light when it is presented to them, and as I feel equally ready to yield to conviction when argument is offered me, I will ask the indulgence of the Journal and its readers, while I make a respectful reply. Neither of us, I trust, will hold on to any error after he sees its fallacy; for of all men, the school teacher should be truthful and honest in every word and act of his life; wielding as he does, an influence on the characters of the children under his care, more potent than that of any other man or woman in our land. Let us as teachers then, be always honest and true in all our acts and words; holding on to nothing because it is *old*, and advancing nothing because it is *new;* trying all things by the simple standard of *truth*, and obeying always our honest convictions of *right*. For on *our* lives depends the moral and mental health of the future generation.

As friend Rauch and myself appear to agree upon *fractions*, nothing more need be said about them.—I trust we will as fully agree in the rest of our views when we come to understand each other perfectly; for I hope we are honest enough to try to see the truth, and earnest effort nearly always succeeds.

I am a little surprised to find that friend Rauch thinks my question about laying out a field of 30 acres, similar to one of known dimensions containing 20 acres, difficult, when he admits the corn question easy; and that he thinks the garner question hard, when he admits the Jupiter problem simple.

The field question involves nothing more than this, that all similar superficies are to each other as the *squares* of their like sides. Does the corn question not involve the same proposition? Certainly it does. To solve the latter we have to say: As $3:2::(4)^2:\frac{2}{3}(4)^2$, the square root of which will give the width of the furrrows, or the side of the square; or we may say 4 times 4 are 16, the area of the squares when 3 grains are planted in a hill, and as only 2 grains are to be put in a hill now, and must have $\frac{2}{3}$ the ground in the squares if the corn is to be as thick as before; therefore $\frac{2}{3}$ of $(4)^2$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ of 16 will be the quantity of ground in a square of the latter planting; the square root of this, which is $\frac{2}{3}$ of 10 will be the side of the square. But is this not precisely the same solution as the other? Would the latter solution work if similar superfices were not to each other as the squares of their like sides? No one will pretend it would. And this proposition is not hard to comprehend.

If 2 yds. of calico 1 yd. wide, is worth 20 cents, 4 yds. of the same texture and width will be worth 40 cents: because the *values* of the prices, are in direct proportion to their *length*. Hence we say 2: 4:: 20 cts. (the price of 2 yds.): 40 cts. (the price of 4 yds.) I know dividing by 2 to get the price of 1 yd., and multiplying by 4 gives the price of 4 yds. But the solution still depends on the granted fact, that the *price* is in direct proportion to the *quantity*. If it was not so, multiplying the price of 1 yd. by 4, would not give the price of 4 yds. Now, suppose in addition to its being twice as *long*, it is also twice as wide: then we must say—as $(2)^2:(4)^2::20$ cts. (the price of 2 yds. 1 yd. wide): 80 cts. (the price of 4 yds., 2 yds. wide), because all similar superfices are to each other as the squares of their like sides, and the prices of the pieces, are to each other in the direct proportion of their quantity. I know we can say $\frac{20}{2} = 10 =$ the price of 1 yd., which is 1 yd. wide, and $10 \times 4 = 40 =$ price of 4 yds. 1 yd. wide; but as the 4-yd. piece is also double the width, we must multiply 40 by $2 = 80$, for the price of 4 yds. 2 yds. wide. Persons may use their pleasure in solving, but all the solutions, if they are varied to infinity, will depend on the same fixed law of proportion.

And is this law of the proportion of superfices to each other hard to understand? I think not. I know the demonstration of the proposition is placed away in the middle of the sixth book of Euclid, but I also know that a great many of the propositions in Geometry, are very capable of being fully understood by a little plain common sense; and I think this is one of them. Now, if the prices of the pieces of calico are given, to find the length and width, from the length and width of a similar piece, the proposition is just as simple, and it then becomes the same as the field and the corn questions I gave. I think any good head can be made fully to understand this proposition in half an hour. I also think any practical surveyor that could not solve both the field and garner question given by me, in five minutes, had better lay down his Jacob staff and go to ditching. When I made those questions, I had no other idea than that the fields were to be either squares or oblongs, and the garners either perfect cubes of oblong solids, bounded by 6 plain sides meeting at right angles; for farmers do not usually lay out their fields or build their garners in any other than a regular shape. But if they were of some other shape and similar, the square root and cube root would work them, with the understanding of the simple propositions, that similar superficies are to each other as the *squares* of their like sides, and that similar solids are to each other as the *cubes* of their like sides. But in all *practical* questions nearly, the superficies and solids will be regular, when the solution will become *precisely* the same as the corn question. If the field was oblong, and twice as long as broad, we would only have to double the area to convert it into a square, when of course extracting the square roo

would give one of its sides, or the length of the required field, and dividing said length by the ratio between the width and length would give the width.—Friend Rauch will not think this needs a very thorough knowledge of the propositions in Geometry, when he admits the corn question to be so simple.

The garner question is just the same; for suppose the first garner to be 4 feet wide, 6 feet long, and 8 feet deep, and to hold, say, 150 bushels; the second one to hold 4 times as much or 600 bushels. We have only to multiply the quantity it holds by 2 to get the contents of one that is 8 feet deep, 8 feet long and 6 feet wide; and this quantity multiplied by $1\frac{1}{2}$, (the times 6 is contained in 8), will convert it into a perfect cube. It would then hold 1600 bushels, which being brought to cubic feet, and the cube root taken, would of course give the depth, when the length and width can be easily obtained by simple proportion.

I cannot understand how one of Friend Rauch's evident ability, should call this question harder than the Jupiter problem, even though the garners were neither perfect nor oblong cubes, but of irregular shape; for they both depend on the same law, that similar solids are to each other as the cubes of their homologous sides, and consequently that spheres are to each other, as the cubes of their diameters or their circumferences, and it certainly requires as much knowledge in conic sections, to understand the proportion of spheres, as that of any other solid whatever. But suppose the demonstrations are not understood by all who make use of them, does that destroy the value of the calculation? How many of our practical surveyors could demonstrate, if called upon, the propositions they are constantly making use of? And are their calculations not just as valid as if they could demonstrate every principle they use?—Is the calculation of an eclipse any the less to be depended upon, because the calculator did not look through the telescope himself and make the Nautical Almanac, from which his data are taken? How many persons that are constantly making use of the multiplication table, and doing all kinds of questions *correctly* by its aid, have ever tried for themselves whether 7 times 7 make 49 or not?

I believe in investigating all things, but do not stop us from using a principle or fact that some one else has demonstrated to be true, only because we do not fully understand it ourselves, especially when that *use* forms the strongest incentive to *investigate* and understand it for ourselves. Better understand the practical part without the principle, than neither the principle nor the practice. Children must of necessity, use the rule for working long division some time before they can understand the philosophy of it. Yet that should be explained as soon as possible.—But it never can be understood till the practical part is learned, and if the theory or the philosophy of it is *never* understood, I would not prevent the child from using it in calculations, for it can be of great service to him through his whole life, though he never knows the philosophical reason of all he does, while working it.

I cannot see the advantage of friend Rauch's mode of working Allegations, when the plan pursued by Emerson or Naylor, is quite as simple, and will always give a straightforward answer, without reference to the quantity to be mixed. Friend Rauch's mode might take more sugar than the storekeeper had; then he would be at a loss. There is certainly nothing intricate about Allegations, that any one need want to get anything more simple than the plan pursued by Emerson and Naylor.

In regard to compound interest being calculated more easily by multiplying by the per cent. and adding the principal to every year, than by Geometrical progression, I doubt. But when it comes to calculating the amount of an annuity, that has been forborn 15 or 20 years, I cannot see how we could get along without Geometrical Progressions. Or if we wish to get the present worth of an annuity which is to continue 20 or 30 years, it seems to me Geometrical Progressions are almost indispensably necessary. For to add all the different amounts together for 20 or 30 times, would be very long and difficult. The calculation of an *eclipse* would scarcely require more work. We may indeed use the tables given us in some old Arithmetics, but if the *tables* get lost, *we* are lost; and it is best to have the knowledge of how the tables are made in our heads, that we may calculate them for ourselves if occasion demands. Indeed, you will cripple practical Arithmetic mightily if you take Geometrical Progressions out of it.

As friend Rauch admits the corn question I gave, to be practical and Arithmetical, I think he ought not to condemn the taking of time to learn the *Square Root*, at least: for such questions can be multiplied to infinity. Suppose a glass manufacturer makes window glass 8 by 10 to sell at 4 cents a pane: he wishes to make another lot to sell at $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents a pane, of a similar shape;—Can he tell how long and wide to make it without the Square Root? Yet this will come under friend Rauch's simple questions, for the calculation would require nothing more than to multiply the area of the latter panes (which would be 80 multiplied by $1\frac{9}{16}$) by $1\frac{1}{4}$ taking the Square Root for the length, or dividing that area, by $1\frac{1}{4}$ and taking the Square Root for the width, as in the field question. Such questions are endless.

In regard to single and double Positions, I do not contend for them. They are not in Emerson's Arithmetic, nor any other modern one that I know of. The present worth and discount of notes, bonds, &c., may be, and mostly are calculated by Single Position, but this can be done perhaps more nicely without its aid. The way friend Lamborn has solved his knife ques-

tion though, I regard as precisely on the principle of Single Position. For he has taken a hundred by supposition, and after taking 20 per cent from it, finds it leaves 80, which is eight times too much, therefore he says the *supposed number* is eight times too much; (precisely as they say in working Single Position) and consequently he decreases it eight times, by dividing by 8. Could he have solved it more in accordance with the rule for Single Position, if he had made the statement thus,—as 80 (the selling price of 100) : 10 (the real selling price of the knife) :: 100 (the *supposed* cost price) : 12½ (the real cost price of the knife, or the answer)? By dividing 10 into 80, and the quotient of that division, into 100, he only performs the operation by cancelling. He does not avoid the principle of Single Position that has aided him in his solution. It would be more anolytical if done thus: the selling price being ⅘ of the cost price, 10 is the ⅘ of some number, whence dividing by 4 gives the ⅕, and multiplying by 5 gives the ⅝ or the whole number, which is 12½ as before. Yet friend Lamborn's solution is just as good as mine. Taking 100 for the supposed number though does not avoid the Position. Take the following question which is a little more complicated, and Single Position will be more likely to be used: A takes 1000 feet of rough boards to B to get planed. B in the operation planes away 25 per cent. of all the boards he planes, and is allowed by A 3 cents per foot of planed boards (that is the number of feet after 25 per cent. is planed away) for planing, and to take his pay in *rough* boards out of the same lot, at 20 cents per foot;—Query: the number of feet of rough boards B is to keep out for himself, and the number of feet he is to plane for A. Would not the simplest way it could be solved, be to take 100 feet and see what it would be worth to plane them, then finding 12 feet of rough boards pay for planing 100 feet, say there is to be 12 feet of rough boards kept by B, for every 112 in the lot, and consequently $\frac{1000}{112}$ x 12 give what B keeps out for himself, planing the remainder for A. But this is purely Single Position and nothing else. I know other solutions may be given, but they will neither be as plain nor as common-sensible as the Position one.

I know there can no question be solved by either Single or Double Position, that does not admit of an analytical solution; but there are many persons who can do questions by Position, that have not strength of mind sufficient to give purely analytical solutions. To such, Single and Double Position are of great use. To the first rate Arithmetician, they are of little account I admit, especially if he understands Algebra. The questions taken by Messrs. Rauch and Lamborn are very simple. I will give a couple that I think more troublesome. A man, when he was married, was 1½ times as old as his wife, 10 years after, he was 1⅓ times as old, how old was each on their wedding day? A mule and an ass were carrying burthens, says the ass to the mule, "give me 1 cwt. of your load, and I will have twice as much as you;" says the mule to the ass, "give me 1 cwt. of yours, and I will have 3 times as much as you." Now how much had each? Analysis will work them both; but there are hundreds who will be able to solve them by Position, to one who can do them on the abstract plan, without the aid of Algebra. Then why not let them have the rule, as the explanation of it, and also of the Square and Cube root. Arithmetical and Geometrical Progression, is as philosophical, and very nearly as simple, to a good head, as that for Partnership, Equation of payments, or even simple proportion itself?

I have no objection to Friend Lamborn's throwing away Barter, Loss and Gain, Fellowship, Equation of payments, &c., as *special* rules. I can see advantage in them indeed, for they are all the simple rule of Proportion, combined according to common sense, and if they all came under one head, the student would be taught to think more for himself, and depend less on the *book* or *book rules*. It is not the arrangement of questions under particular heads, that I am contending for; it is the knowledge of how to work all kinds of Arithmetical questions in the quickest and easiest way; and not to let children grow up to be men and go down to their graves ignorant of principles in Arithmetic that would teach them how to solve the questions I have proposed, and myriads of others, that they never *could* do, without a knowledge of those principles.

Friend Lamborn may put questions to be solved by the square and cube root, geometrical progressions, allegations, &c., right along side of each other, and all mixed up with other, in simple proportion, reduction, exchange, equation of payments, barter, loss and gain, and fellowship, and arrange them all under one head, in one chapter, and belonging to one section, and call them "Arithmetic," or "Common Sense," or, which would be more appropriate, "Miscellaneous Questions;" and I can go with him. Only let me have the questions to apply the rules to, and allow me to teach my scholars how to work all kinds of practical questions mixed up to eternity, and the more mixed the better, without reference to the *name*, of the rule they are to work them by, and I am satisfied. Much more depends on the teacher than on the book, however; and if teachers are careful to give their scholars plenty of practical questions to solve on the black board and explain, without telling them anything about the rule they are to be worked by, the arrangement given by Emerson, I do not think objectionable, especially as children need a little aid at first from rules as given in the book; and placing them in the ocean of arithmetic without compass or guide, might dishearten them. When there are a great many practical questions given at the close, promiscuously arranged, that will exercise them pretty thoroughly.

I agree with Friend Rauch that a knowledge of the calculations of wood, stone, walls, plastering, &c. is more important than the cube root or geometrical progressions. But I think Friend Lamborn's "common sense" will "fetch the answer" to all these without many special rules for them. They should come first, however. All should be taught, and taught thoroughly without reference to books; and instead of the dolts we now have in arithmetic, we should have children who could tell almost every thing in arithmetical science and solve almost instantly much more difficult questions than those that Friend Rauch thinks too hard for our Lancaster county surveyors.

This is what we want: will not all teachers and friends of education labor to bring it about? The mode of telling the area of a triangle when the three sides are given, is easy, and can be taught to any one understanding the square root in fifteen minutes, so that he can work any question which comes up for practice. Every one may not understand all the reasons for the mode pursued; but being ignorant of the principles involved, will not injure the calcution in the least, and he will be much more likely to investigate and understand the principles from having been taught the practical part. Let everything that is practical and useful be taught to children,and they will soon learn to investigate all things for themselves and have all the rules and principles that work practical questions in arithmetic, mensuration, algebra, geometry and conic sections in their heads, to call out at a moment's warning, instead of being the walking machines they are now.

SEYMOUR PRESTON.

Harmony School, 7mo. 1, 1852.

ARITHMETICAL ABBREVIATIONS--Continued.

In our Orphans' Courts it is customary to allow Executors and Administrators 5 per cent. on all personal, and 2½ per cent. on all real estate by them accounted for. In preparing these accounts, this commission can be very conveniently ascertained by subtracting from the whole amount, one-half the value of the Real estate, then cancelling the last figure of the dollars, and one-half of the number then remaining will be the commission in dollars. So if the whole amount of an estate be $9000, and the Real is $5000. Deduct $2500 from 9000, remainder after cancelling the last cypher, $650; and one-half thereof, or $325 is the commission. If greater accuracy is required, the last figure of the cents can be cancelled, when the commission will appear in cents; as, If the whole amount were $1614,64 and the real estate $715,60: then from 1614,64 subtract one-half of 715,60, or 357,30, leaving, after cancelling the last figure in the cents, 12568 cents, of which one-half is 6284 cents, or $62,84 for the commission.

In calculating Interst for years and parts of years, a great number of methods can be pursued. The only method, however, which brings a strictly correct result is, to calculate for years and days by proportion. Thus for instance:

If the Interest for 365 days be $17,00 what will the Interest be for 173 days. Answer $8,06 nearly.

But for all practical purposes a very near approximation can be obtained, by taking 12 months for a year, and calling each day one-thirtieth of a month.

If money is loaned at 6 per cent. the interest is one cent per dollar for two months, therefore, if $314 is loaned for 14 months the multiplication of 314 by one-half of 14, or 7, making 2198, will be the interest in cents, being $21,98.

It is immaterial whether the time is calculated upon the interest for 1 year, or upon the principal, or upon the per centage. If, for instance, the interest for $460 at 6 per cent. be required for 3 years and 4 months, which is 3⅓ years, then the interest in one year will be $27,60 and this multiplied by 3⅓d will bring $92; or, 460 times $3⅓ is $1533,36 of which one years interest will also be $92,00; or, lastly, 6 per cent. multiplied by 3⅓d is 20, and $460 at 20 per cent. is also $92, which in this example is the shortest method.

As a general rule, however, I would recommend to arrange the time upon the capital, and find the interest by the given per cent. This can be done in any convenient way. Thus, if a capital of $342 stands for 1 year, 8 months and 23 days, it may be done thus:

Take for 1 year,	$342,00
Add one-half thereof for 6 months,	171,00
" one-third of this for 2 "	57,00
" one-third of this for 20 days,	19,00
" one-fourth of this for 5 "	4,72
Total,	$593,75

which total of 593,75 will bring the same interest in 1 year, as $342 in 1 year, 8 months and 25 days, being at 5 per cent $29,68¾ and at 6 per cent. $35,62½.

In some cases it is much more convenient to calculate interest at 6 per cent, and in others at 5 per cent. If such is the case, the interest can be changed from 5 to 6 per cent. by adding ⅕, or from 6 to 5 per cent. by subtracting ⅙. For instance, if the interest on $484, be required at 5 per cent. for 4 years and 2 months, then at 6 per cent. the interest would for the whole time be 25 per cent. or ¼ of the capital; therefore, $121, and ⅙ thereof is $20,17; therefore, at 5 per cent. the amount will be 20,17 less than $121 or $100,17.

The following method for finding interest for days at 5 per cent. brings a very nearly correct result, and may find a place here, although it is more ingenious and curious than useful:

Suppose the question be given $648 at 146 days.

Multiply 648 by 146, which is	94608
Add one-third thereof,	31536
Add one-tenth of this last sum,	3153
Add again one-tenth of this,	315

Total 129612, reject the two last figures, and 1296 remains which is the interest in cts. or $12,96.

If the 365 days are divided by 5, the quotent is 73. It therefore follows, that at 5 per cent. the interest is one cent. per dollar for every 73 days. In our last example we had $648 for 146 days, which is twice 73 days, hence the interest is twice 648 cents. or $12,96, as before.

If the money stands for days longer than 73, or 2, 3, or 4 times 73 days, then such additional days can be taken proportionably of 73 days; as, if we had 84 days, the interest would be 1 cent and $\frac{1}{3}$ cts. per dollar; but the difference between $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{5}$ is so exceedingly small, that to all practical purposes it is sufficient to take in place of $\frac{1}{3}$, the nearly equal fraction $\frac{1}{2}$ which is $\frac{1}{6}$. So if the $648 were at interest for 85 days, it would be $1\frac{1}{6}$ times 648 cents, or 108 cents added to 648, making 756 cents; and if the interest were at 6 per cent, then $\frac{1}{2}$ of this sum must be added, making 907 cents, or $9,07 as the interest for 85 days at 6 per cent. These two last operations might be combined together by calling the interest $\frac{7}{6}$ times $\frac{6}{5}$ times the given dollars, which after cancelling the 2 sixes in $\frac{7}{5}$ times 648, or 907 as before.

Considerably more yet might be said on this subject, but of much less importance, than what has before been said. A great part might fall under some of those arithmetical rules on which I have heretofore expressed my opinion, that they were nearly, and some of them entirely, usless to the business-man. I may perhaps take up this subject again, at some future day; I shall now conclude, by giving a few simple practical problems and showing how they can be solved.

1. Suppose 34 yards of calico are sold $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents per yard, what is its value. Here the value of 1 yard is $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents, therefore, every 8 yards are worth a dollar, making $\frac{34}{8}$ dollars, or $4,25.

2. What is the value of $6\frac{1}{4}$ yards of cloth at $2,56 per yard. It will be perceived that $6\frac{1}{4}$ times 256 cts. is the same as 256 times $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents. But $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents is $\frac{1}{16}$ of a dollar, therefore the $6\frac{1}{4}$ yards cost $\frac{256}{16}$ dollars, or $16,00.

3. What is the value of $4\frac{1}{4}$ yards of Drygoods at 28 cents per yard. In this example we have the 2 factors $4\frac{1}{4}$ and 28, and by multiplying the one and dividing the other by 4 we obtain the two new factors, 17 and 7; and 17 times 7 is 119 cents, or $1,19.

4. I wish to know the value of $14\frac{1}{2}$ yards of goods at $87\frac{1}{2}$ cents per yard. Here the value of a yard is $\frac{7}{8}$ dollars, hence the factors are $\frac{7}{8}$ and $4\frac{1}{2}$ which can, as before be changed to $\frac{7}{16}$ and 29, and the product of $\frac{7}{16}$ times 29 is $\frac{203}{16}$, or $12,68\frac{3}{4}$, the value of the whole.

5. Find the value of 26 yards of calico at $17\frac{1}{2}$ cts. per yard, or which brings the same result, $17\frac{1}{2}$ yards at 26 cents.

10	yards at 26 cents come to	260
5	" is one-half thereof	130
$2\frac{1}{2}$	" is one-half of 5, or	065
	Which gives for the whole value	$4,55

6. What is the value of $13\frac{1}{2}$ yards of cloth at $2,64 per yard. Its value is evidently $13\frac{1}{2}$ times 264 cents, or 264 times $13\frac{1}{2}$ cents. If it were $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents it would be $\frac{1}{8}$ of a dollar, therefore $33,00; but it is 264 times 1 cent more, therefore add 264, making for the whole $35,64.

7. Required the value of $9\frac{1}{2}$ yards of cloth at $3\frac{1}{4}$ dollars per yard. As in the last example the value is the same as 325 yards at $9\frac{1}{2}$ cents. If it were 10 cents it would be $32,50. But it is $\frac{1}{2}$ cent per yard less, therefore subtract $1,62\frac{1}{2}$, leaving for the whole $30,87$\frac{1}{2}$.

8. The standard weight for 1 bushel of wheat is 60 lbs. Now suppose 75 bushels were sold at $1 per bushel weighing 62 lbs. what is its value? Here the wheat has $1\frac{1}{30}$ of its full weight, therefore in 75 bu. it has $\frac{75}{30}$ or $2\frac{1}{2}$ bushels additional to the measure, making $77\frac{1}{2}$ bushels, worth $77,50. Or, each bushel is worth $1\frac{1}{30}$ dollar, or $103\frac{1}{3}$ cents, making 75 times $103\frac{1}{3}$ cents; multiplying the one and dividing the other by 3, makes 310 times 25 cents, and is 310 quarter dollars, or $77,50 as before.

C. H. Rauch.

Warwick twp., Lancaster co., Pa.

Original Essays, Memoirs, &c.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION.

BY ELIAS SCHNEIDER, OF POTTSVILLE.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 116.

The history of the past informs us, that the general character and tone of human thinking in every age, depend always upon a few leading minds, who control the world of thought in their time. Those who think and speculate most profoundly always give a certain direction to the thinking of those who are one degree lower in the scale of intelligence; and these again influence those below them, and so on, until the conceptions of the highest minds reach, in the shape of some received and admitted doctrines, the minds of the lowest order of intellect. And this influence is consequently felt by all forms of society and by all institutions then in existence. And if the prevailing systems of philosophy have a dangerous tendency, this evil influence makes itself felt in every

direction. We find accordingly that the German rationalism of the 18th century, which originated one system of philosophy in quick succession after another, each one overthrowing the preceding, but seeking to establish its own dogmas with the same confidence as the former had done, exerted also a very great influence on the cause of education. Under this influence, four prevailing hypotheses arose in regard to the subject of education, the true idea of teaching, and the proper mode of training all the powers of man.

I will first speak of the so-called *philanthropic system*, which was originated chiefly by BASEDOW, the enthusiastic admirer of Rousseau, whose name has already been mentioned. Basedow pretended to be guided entirely by the voice of nature in his mode of teaching; and believing that the existing social relations were at variance with nature's laws, he was hostile to most of the forms of society then established. These views affected, of course, his ideas on the subject of education, which he labored assiduously to propagate in his writings, and which he endeavored also to put into practice in an institution established at Dessau. This school was made a pattern after which a number of others were fashioned soon after. About the same time his friend Rochow, who entertained the same views, labored with equal zeal in the cause of education, but more particularly in behalf of the young in country villages. He also established what was called a model school. Campe and Salzmann, formerly associates of Basedow, were no less active in propagating the same views and laboring in the same work in which their master was engaged. All these men, with Basedow at their head, made a deep impression on their time, and awakened much discussion by disseminating their views.

According to this system, Nature constitutes the noblest subject for contemplation and study. The spoken languages should always be studied in preference to the dead. To enlighten the understanding and to give expertness and efficiency to the reasoning powers, constitute the proper aim in teaching. Only the great, the noble, and the good deeds of men, recorded in history, should be narrated to the young. The vices of historical characters should be carefully concealed. Biblical instruction, the dogmas of the church, miracles, and whatever relates to subjects which are above human reason, belong not to the education of youth, but should be confined to the teachings of denominational sects. Abstruse church doctrines are not easily understood by mature minds, much less by the young. Natural religion and the idea of God as revealed to our reason in contemplating the works of nature, and the natural benevolence and disinterested love springing from this contemplation, constitute the absolute and pure religion of rational beings. Man needs, not so much the doctrine of faith, as that of morality. True morality constitutes the essential substance of Christianity and of all religion. Religion is the daughter of morality, and a virtuous deportment is the result of an enlightened understanding. The nature of man is not diseased with total depravity; his vices are, in a great measure, the result of ignorance and also of superstition the offspring of ignorance. Just as Christ sought to influence men by his precepts and example, so also, must man, everywhere, be enlightened and elevated in character by proper instruction and virtuous examples presented for his imitation. The exercise of faith in the atonement of Christ is prejudicial to a proper use of our reason, and is in reality a species of superstition. Christ is nothing more than the wisest and most virtuous man the world ever saw; and by his death he made no efficacious atonement, but exhibited only a veritable and impressive confirmation of the truth of his doctrines.

This system is the fruit of German rationalism, the most specious infidelity of modern times, making religion the daughter of mere human culture. Views, somewhat similar to these, are springing up also in our own country, particularly among the Unitarians of New England.

The system of the *humanists*, which originated nearly at the same time, exerted also a powerful influence on men in regard to the subject of education. But the influence of this system was confined more particularly to the higher institutions, and was advocated principally by ERNESTI and his pupils. According to the views of these men, the study of the ancient Greek and Latin authors is the best and most efficient means of training the intellect of the young. In the classic writings of these once world-ruling nations is contained a truly efficient educational element, and from them alone can be acquired a thorough philological and grammatical knowledge of language; they constitute the *humaniora studia*.—The modern languages are of secondary consideration in the course of studies adapted to the young, and should, by no means, be allowed to interfere with the time necessary for prosecuting the study of the ancient. In studying language, we investigate the laws of the human mind itself, the noblest study of all; and to penetrate the profound mysteries of our intellectual nature, in this way, we must study these most polished languages thoroughly. But this can, however, not be accomplished by mere exercises in speaking, and by committing to memory select sentences and phrases, but only by an early, assiduous, and accurate study of grammatical rules, and the dictionary, and by industriously reading and translating classic authors. If the admiration and study of classic writings were to cease, the barbarism of the middle ages would follow as a natural consequence. The Greeks and Romans were the most refined nations of antiquity, and are consequently a

pattern for all succeeding ones, particularly in government, science and art. They constitute the pure model after which we should fashion ourselves.—From their writings we must acquire the art of expounding the meaning of the original text of the Bible itself. Greek and Latin authors are almost the only original sources of historical knowledge respecting antiquity. Thorough philological learning is therefore the key to unlock the meaning of the Bible and of all history.

The two systems, just now described, rested upon quite different principles, and their advocates were consequently much engaged in controversy with one another. The humanists exposed successfully the errors and evil tendencies of the opposite party, but yet they were compelled to acknowledge the good, which had, in many respects, been accomplished by it, particularly in favor of the lower schools. While their labors were confined chiefly to the higher institutions, the philanthropists accomplished much in directing the attention of men to the wants of the lower classes, and to the necessity of establishing Seminaries for the education of teachers. During the struggle, between these two opposite systems, there arose a new system, named after the celebrated Henry Pestalozzi.

This benevolent man and successful teacher obtained such a wide reputation, both by means of his writings, and his elementary school at Burgdorf, that young men came from all parts of Europe to this celebrated institution, for the purpose of hearing from the lips of this worthy man, the principles of the new system. Some of these came at their own expense, and others at the expense of their government.

It is somewhat difficult to give a correct statement of Pestalozzi's system. His success in teaching is to be attributed, not so much to any particular method or principles, as chiefly to his disinterested devotion to the business of instructing, and to his tender love towards children, to whose improvement he had, as it were, religiously consecrated all his powers of invention and practical genius. "The spirit which pervaded the whole, and which constituted the vital principle of Pestalozzi's education, was less tangible than a set of printed lesson tables; and hence it is that travellers, inquirers, and observers, from near and far, while they have hardly caught a glimpse of the former, have inundated the world with fragments of the latter, which could not but prove inefficient and worthless, like to a branch which must necessarily wither when it is cut off from the tree on which it grew. Much of the reproach which has from various quarters and on various grounds been heaped upon the cause, is to be attributed to this circumstance; the disproportion between the effects announced and the results actually obtained, by men who converted the means ingrafted upon the life of the institution at Yverdon into a dead system, and transferred them on a dead ground, has prejudiced many even against those branches of the method which Pestalozzi and his teachers had succeeded in establishing."

His views can be best presented by giving the language of those who discussed the merits of his system. "When Pestalozzi made the true culture of man dependent on his being developed entirely from within, his meaning was, that the child and the youth should, in accordance with his natural developement, be excited to purely independent activity, and strengthened for an unbrokon progress. This is his method. It achieves, in the first instance, the strengthening of the mental faculties, in order to their developing themselves progressively from within; and thus the culture of the intellectual powers for the successful performance of their appropriate functions is made the chief concern of education.—And as this development ought to commence in early childhood, Pestalozzi has assigned to the mother the first instruction of the child."

The child, according to his system, in order to receive a suitable training, needs not so much a learned instructor, during its first few school years, as one of pure and lofty moral sentiments, and who is disinterestedly devoted to its welfare. Hence an affectionate and pious mother, even if of slender acquirements, can impart successfully the first lessons of a child's education. Pure morality and correct motives of action must be developed out of the child's filial feelings. "These manifest themselves in confidence, gratitude, and obedience towards the parents; and here also the mother must be the first agent, as in her the Deity is, as it were, to appear to the child." Pestalozzi based his system of instruction altogether upon love. "He led his children by the love which they bore him, by the moral ascendancy which he had gained over them, so that whithersoever he led the way, they were willing to follow; and in this manner he taught his children to treat one another."

He was early impressed with the importance of furnishing the young pupil's mind with the proper intellectual food, and of not making his school room a mere prison house, in which he would be compelled to go over an unmeaning routine of burdensome and tasteless tasks. He says: "This much I saw clearly, that the child may be brought to a high degree of knowledge, both of things, and of language, before it would be rational to teach him reading, or even spelling; and seeing this, I felt the necessity of leading children from their earliest infancy to a rational view of all things, by presenting them in a manner calculated to draw forth the action of the different faculties upon every object. I was deeply impressed with the want of 'intuitive elementary books,' by the aid of which, long before the spelling-book comes on, children might be made acquainted with those objects of which they are to learn the names, either

by their being exhibited to them in reality, or represented to them in good models and drawings."

His views in regard to the proper mode of teaching the sounds of the letters, and spelling, are somewhat interesting. He pretended to follow nature on this point, and reasoned thus: The language of our species began not with written characters, to which were given afterwards certain sounds. It is, therefore, preposterous to think that the child's knowledge of the characters of the alphabet and of their combinations in syllables should precede his instruction in the composition of the sounds of language. Take his own words: "It is not to be left to chance, at what time, and to what extent, the child shall become acquainted with each sound. An early and complete knowledge of them all is of great importance. This knowledge he should have, before he is able to pronounce them; and, in like manner, he should be able to pronounce them, generally, with ease, before he be introduced to the knowledge of written or printed characters, and taught to read. The sounds of the language ought to be taught in every family from the earliest infancy. The child who learns his spelling book, ought to repeat them to the infant in the cradle, before it is able to pronounce even one of them, so that they may be deeply impressed upon its mind by frequent repetition. It is incredible to those who have not seen it, how much the attention of babes is excited by the repetition of a few simple sounds, and their combinations. But the charm which it has for them, is not the only advantage; it contributes to the development of their faculties, and prepares them for future greater exertions."

"The first leading idea which had come home with clearness to Pestalozzi's mind, was the necessity of founding the knowledge of the child upon the evidence of his senses. This axiom, which he had laid down as the basis of his method, was in fact nothing else but a partial apprehension of the general principle, that true knowledge is knowledge, not of the name, but of the substance. He taught his pupils to watch the gathering up of the morning mists, and the shadows of the early clouds, which passing over the glittering lake, hid for a moment, as with a veil of dark gauze, its streams of undulating gold; he directed their eyes to the flaming characters with which the sun writes the farewell of day on the traceless surface of eternal snow; he stood listening with them to the majestic voice of nature when the autumnal gale, howling on the floods, rolled billow after billow on the bleak shore; he guided their steps to the mountain caves from whose dark recesses the stately rivers draw their inexhaustible supplies. Wherever he found a leaf in the mysterious book of creation laid open, he gave it them to read, and thus, within the narrow sphere of their horizon, taught them more of earth and earth born beings, than they could have learned by travelling in the pages of a heavy volume all around the globe."

"In his plan and method of teaching, Pestalozzi aimed altogether at substituting realities for mere hollow sounds and empty forms, which he despised and considered utterly unprofitable for developing those mental and moral powers with which man is gifted. His views in regard to the correct course to be pursued in developing the religious nature of man are so interesting, that I cannot forbear giving his own words at length. "I ask myself; how does the idea of the Divine Being arise in my soul? Whence is it, that I believe in God, that I throw myself into His arms; that to love Him, to confide in Him, to thank and obey Him, is infinite bliss to my heart?

"I find that the feelings of love, confidence, and gratitude, and the habit of obedience require to be developed in man, before they can be directed to the Divine Being as their object. I must love men, confide in men, be grateful to men, and obey men, before I can cherish the same feelings, and practice the same virtues toward God, 'for he that loveth not his brother, whom he hath seen, how can he love God, whom he hath not seen?'

"The question then is: what are the means of awakening in the child, love, confidence, gratitude and obedience, with regard to man? I answer: *all these virtues originate in the relationship established between the infant and its mother.*

"The mother is impelled, as it were, by instinct to nurse and foster her child, to afford him shelter and happiness. She satisfies all his wants, she removes from him all that is unplesant to him, she assists his helplesness; the child is provided for and happy; *the seed of love begins to be unfolded.*

"A new object strikes his senses; he is astonished, afraid, he cries; the mother presses him more fondly to her bosom, she plays with him, amuses him—he ceases from crying—but the tears remain in his eyes. The object reappears, the mother throws around him again her protecting arms, and comforts him with a smile—he cries no longer, his bright unclouded little eye answers the mother's smile; *the seed of confidence has taken root in his soul.*

"The mother runs to his cradle whenever he has any want; she is there in the hour of hunger, at her breast his cravings are hushed—when he hears her step approaching, his whinings cease; when he sees her, he stretches out his little arms; while hanging at her bosom, his eye beams with satisfaction:—*mother* and *satisfaction* are to him but one idea—it is that of *gratitude.*

"The germs of love, confidence, and gratitude, grow rapidly. His ear listens to the mother's footstep; his eye follows her shadow with a smile; he loves whoever resembles her; a being that resembles his mother is in his idea a kind being. He beholds the form of his mother, the human form, with delight—whoever is dear to his mother, is dear to him; he embraces whomever she embraces, kisses whomever she kisses. *The love of mankind, brotherly love, springs up in his heart.*

"Nature opposes the storming child by unbending necessity. The child knocks against wood and stone; nature remains unbending, and the child ceases to knock against wood and stone. The mother also begins to oppose in the same manner the turbulence of his desires. He raves and kicks—she remains inexorable—he ceases to cry, and accustoms himself to subject his will to hers—*and the seeds of patience and obedience are unfolding themselves in his heart.*

"By the united action of love, gratitude and confidence, and obedience, the conscience is awakened—the first shade of a feeling, that it is wrong to rave against a loving mother; that the mother is not in the world for his sake only; this leads to the feeling that other beings and things, nay, he himself are not made for his sake only,—and here are the first germs of *duty* and *right.*

"These are the fundamental principles of moral de-

velopement, arising from the relation in which nature has placed the child to his mother; and in them is the root of that disposition of soul by which man is drawn to his Maker; that is to say, our feelings of union with God through faith spring essentially from the same root, as those from which the infant's attachment to his mother springs.

"The infant *trusts* and *obeys*, but he is unconscious of the grounds of his confidence and of his obedience; and as he becomes gradually conscious of them, this power over him diminishes in the same proportion. He begins to feel himself, he leaves the hand of his mother, and a voice whispers in his bosom 'I have no more need of my mother.' The mother reads in his eyes the rising thought, she presses her darling more affectionately than ever to her bosom, and she says, with a voice such as he never heard before 'oh, my child there is a God of whom thou wilt have need, though thou shouldst have no more need of me—a God who will protect thee when I am no longer able to do it,—a God who will prepare for thee joy and happiness, when I have no more to give.'—Then rises in the child's bosom an unspeakable something, a holy feeling, an impulse of faith, that raises him above himself. He rejoices to hear the name of his God from the lips of his mother, the feelings of love, gratitude, and confidence, which the sympathies of her bosom kindled in him, are enlarged; they now embrace his Heavenly Father, as they first did his earthly parents. The sphere of obedience is extended; the child now fears the eye of God, as it did before that of the mother; and as for the mother's sake heretofore, so now he loves right for the sake of God.

"The first awakening of love, gratitude, confidence, and obedience, is the mere result of instinctive sympathies between mother and child,—the farther developement of these feelings requires the highest art of education; it must be pursued with a constant reference to their origin,—for great and sudden is the danger of their being suffocated."

These lengthy extracts will perhaps enable the reader to acquire a better idea of Pestalozzi's views on the subject of education, than a mere analysis of his system.

The three systems which have now been mentioned, and whose leading principles I have attempted to present, were supposed to contain some wrong tendencies, along with much fundamental truth. Another system was therefore originated, by extracting from the preceeding ones what were supposed to be fundamental truths, and by rejecting the supposed errors. This was called the *eclectic system*, and owed its origin chiefly to the chancellor Niemeier of Halle. His views, on the subject of education, are presented with much ability in several of his works.

[*To be continued.*]

LIVE FOR SOMETHING.—"Thousands of men," says Chalmers, "breathe, move and live—pass off the stage of life, and are heard of no more—why? they do not partake of good in the world, and none were blessed by them; none could point to them as the means of their redemption; not a line they wrote, not a word they spake, could be recalled; and so they perished; their light went out in darkness and they were not remembered more than insects of yesterday. Will you thus live and die, O man immortal!—Live for something. Do good, and leave behind you a monument of virtue."

Educational Selections.

CULTIVATION OF THE POWER OF EXPRESSION.

In the extreme solicitude to cultivate the memory and judgment, it is often true that other faculties of our nature receive but little attention or are entirely overlooked.

If the teacher is successful in imparting knowledge and illustrating principles, to the perfect comprehension of his pupils; and, more especially, if he has the power to awaken in other minds a love for knowledge, and can lead them on to investigate and demonstrate principles for themselves, he is deemed eminently successful in his profession. Pupils and parents, as well as his fellow-teachers, unite in bestowing upon such achievements the highest praise.

Conceding that these are, indeed, rare and high attainments, such as are well worth the thought and patient toil they may cost, we think it well to inquire, whether other high qualifications may not, also, be connected with these, ond whether even higher culture can not be given in those schools which are regarded as *models*. if any such are now recognized.

We notice in those schools which are regarded as affording most satisfactory evidences of faithful mental discipline, a very palpable neglect of the cultivation of the POWER OF EXPRESSION. Facts are presented to a class, or principles stated and demonstrated in an awkward and clumsy manner, by pupils who have, very evidently, given careful attention and faithful study to the subjects presented by them.—Frequently, too, the expression, "the scholar *understands*, but he can not *explain*," is received as an ample apology for all his blunders; while, in other instances, the same expression often conceals much positive ignorance. More rational views should prevail, and a prompt and radical change should be made on this subject, in the elementary training of our common schools, and continued through the entire course of school instruction. It is a part of the work of education, to train the young mind to clearness and accuracy of *expression*, as well as accuracy of *thinking*; and there is no more propriety in neglecting the former, because principles are to be studied, than there is in neglecting penmanship, because grammar is to be studied. A clear, appropriate, beautiful form of expression for our thoughts and emotions, is a matter of quite too much importance to be left to chance, or to the inclination and judgment of the pupil.

The following course is suggested, as at least an improvement on the present methods of instruction.

Let the pupil commence in the Primary School—and at home, if possible—to describe, in his own language, such scenes and objects as he has an opportunity to observe; and let the teacher, or parent, carefully correct his omissions and inaccuracies, by supplying and substituting the most simple, explicit and appropriate terms—always adapted, of course, to the circumstances and capacity of the child. As far and as fast as possible, let his emotions and the operations of his own mind, be the subject for his efforts; and let this be a *regular exercise* at school, and if possible, at home. Let the exercise always be conducted with the single purpose of cultivating, with most assiduous care, a clear, distinct, appropriate form of expression for every thought and every emotion. As the child advances in years and knowledge, let the exercise be continued and expanded. As the facts in Geography or History are learned, let them be arranged in the form of topics or sub-lectures, and

the pupil be required to make a proper presentation of them, in his own language, to the class or to the school. When the principles of common Arithmetic, or the higher Mathematics, are studied, let the pupil be habitually required, not merely to explain his problem so as barely to satisfy the teacher or the class that he understands it, but to commence at his proper point of explanation and present every fact, principle or condition, in its proper time and place, in clear, explicit, *unmistakeable*, appropriate terms; and, if possible, always with the conviction, that a clear and beautiful explanation or demonstration, is a high attainment, as well as a thorough comprehension of scientific principles. It is very desirable—indeed, almost absolutely essential, that this exercise should *daily* and *habitually* be connected with the whole course of mathematical study, from the first elements of mental arithmetic onward, indefinitely.

As the Natural Sciences become the subjects for investigation, a beautiful field is opened for this exercise. If possible, all the members of such classes should be *very liberally* called upon to connect and arrange for themselves the facts and principles they acquire, and present them, in an appropriate manner, to the class and to the school.

All that has been said with respect to oral exercises will, of course, apply to the written essays of pupils. As soon as scholars can form letters—say at seven or eight years—they should also be required to express their thoughts on paper. Thus they can not only learn *to do*, but, with the proper care and attention, can learn *to love to do;* and with the proper oral training, connected with the written exercises, they can in a few years learn to express their thoughts *accurately, promptly, gracefully*, upon any subject upon which they may have ideas to communicate.—*Ohio Journal of Education* M. F. C.

ON DESULTORY STUDY.

The opportunity of acquiring habits of firm and incumbent application, of gaining the art of controlling, directing and concentrating the powers of mind for earnest investigation is an art far more essential then even that learning which is the primary object of study.

I am aware I may be here reminded of the necessity of rendering instruction agreeable to youth, and of Tasso's infusion of honey into the medicine prepared for a child; but an age in which children are taught the driest doctrines by the insinuating method of instructive games, has little reason to dread the consequences of study being rendered too serious or severe. History is now reduced to a game at cards, the problems of mathematics to puzzles and riddles, and the doctrines of Arithmetic may, we are assured, be sufficiently acquired by spending a few hours a week at a new and complicated edition of the royal game of the goose. There wants but one step further, and the creed and ten commandments may be taught in the same manner, without the necessity of the grave face, deliberate tone of recital, and devout attention hitherto exacted from well-governed childhood. It may in the mean time be a subject of serious consideration, whether those who are accustomed only to acquire instruction through the medium of amusement, may not be brought to reflect that which approaches under the aspect of study; whether those who learn history by the cards, may not be led to prefer the means to the end; and whether were we to teach religion in the way of sport, our pupils might not thereby be gradually induced to make sport of their religion? To our young hero, who was permitted to seek his instruction only according to the bent of his own mind, and who, of consequence, only sought it so long as it afforded him amusement, the indulgence of his tutors was attended with evil consequences, which long continued to influence his character, happiness, and utility.—Edward's power of imagination and love of literature, although the former was vivid, and the latter ardent, were so far from affording a remedy to this peculiar evil, that they rather inflamed and increased its violence. The library at Waverley-Honour, a large gothic room, with double arches and a gallery, contained that miscellaneous and extensive collection of volumes usually assembled together, during the course of two hundred years, by a family which had been always wealthy, and inclined of course, as a mark of splendour, to furnish their shelves with the current literature of the day, without much scrutiny or nicety of discrimination. Through this ample realm Edward was permitted to roam at large.

With a desire of amusement, therefore, which better discipline might soon have converted into a thirst for knowledge, young Waverley drove through the sea of books, like a vessel without a pilot or a rudder. Nothing perhaps increases by indulgence more than a desultory habit of reading, especially under such opportunities of gratifying it. I believe one reason why such numerous instances of erudition occur among the lower ranks is, that with the same powers of mind, the poor student is limited to a narrow circle for indulging his passion for books, and must necessarily make himself master of the few he possesses ere he can acquire more. Edward, on the contrary, like the epicure who only deigned to take a single morsel from the sunny side of the peach, read no volume a moment after it ceased to excite his curiosity or interest; and it necessarily happened, that the habit of seeking only his sort of gratification rendered it daily more difficult of attainment, till the passion for reading, like other strong appetites, produced by indulgence a sort of satiety.

And yet, knowing much that is known but to few, Edward Waverley might justly be considered as ignorant, since he knew little of what adds dignity to man, and qualifies him to support and adorn an elevated situation in society.—*Sir Walter Scott.*

Moral, Literary & Scientific Selections.

The Sabbath.

There is no land where—all religious obligations aside—the Sabbath is so necessary as in this country. We should become barbarians without it. Already the lust of money and distinction, acting upon natures lashed by our peculiar institutions into the most vehement emulation, wrinkles almost every brow, and makes anxiety a constant presence and power at which strangers gaze and wonder. Our very pleasures have this dash of impatience about them; and our days and hours, hurried on the whirl of constant excitement, lose their distinctness, and mingle in a mass in which the better reasoning faculty can distinguish little that accords with the natural purposes of life. Were this eager hunt of gold or rank uninterrupted, it would soon sweep away before it all that elevates and purifies human nature, or gives the grace and goodness of life.

The Sabbath stays the severer pulses of society, it opens the low and dark clouds that gather round the heart, and lets in the light of better thoughts and

loftier feelings. To lose this recurring dispensation from the cure of the impetuous life-struggle, would be to render our destiny that of the dungeon slave.—While, therefore we regard the desecration of the Sabbath as primarily offensive, as a violation of a divine law, we condemn it as a war against the better charities of life—as a wrong done to the heavy ladened—as a step taken outwards to barbarism.

We see with great regret a constant tendency to the loss of the Sabbath. This is the greatest in those communities where the pulse of society is more rapid and unintermittent, and where the worship of mammon or of pleasure is as perpetual as it is absorbing. The hostility to the Sabbath is manifest in the success of the Sunday papers, devoted to business and pleasure, and in the devotion of the day to idle entertainments.

They who invade the day of rest do a wrong to the race at large, and aid in weakening a divine institution given in mercy, and inseparable from the interests of civilization.—*North American.*

VEGETATION OF THE FROZEN REGIONS.

The following is taken from a review, in the London Literary Gazette, of Seemann's "Botany of the Voyage of H. M. S. Herald, under the command of Capt. Kellett." The Herald was one of the ships engaged from 1849 to 1851 in exploring the Arctic regions, and in the search for Sir John Franklin:

Among the more remarkable features of this uninviting region are the ice-cliffs crowned with soil and luxuriant vegetation. The following account of them will be new to most of our readers:—

"The soil is always frozen, and merely thaws during the summer, a few feet below the surface. But the thawing is by no means uniform. In peat it extends not deeper than two feet, while in other formations, especially in sand or gravel, the ground is free from frost to the depth of nearly a fathom, showing that sand is a better conductor of heat than peat or clay, and corroborating the observation of the accurate J. D. Hooker, who, after a series of experiments in India, arrived at the same conclusion. The roots of the plants, even those of the shrubs and trees, do not penetrate into the frozen subsoil. On reaching it they recoil as if they touched upon a rock through which no passage could be forced. It may be surprising to behold a vegetation flourishing under such circumstances, existing independent, it would seem, of terrestrial heat. But surprise is changed into amazement on visiting Kotzebue sound, where, on the tops of Icebergs, herbs and shrubs are thriving with a luxuriance only equalled in more favoured climes. There, from Elephant to Eschscholtz Point, is a series of cliffs from seventy to ninety feet high, which present some striking illustrations of the manner in which Arctic plants grow. Three distinct layers compose these cliffs. The lower, as far as it can be seen above the ground, is ice, and from fifteen to twenty feet high. The central one is clay, varying in thickness from two to twenty feet, and being intermingled with the remains of fossil elephants, horses, deer, and musk oxen. The clay is coverd by peat, the third layer, bearing the vegetation to which it owes its existence. Every year, during July, August, and September, masses of ice melt, by which the uppermost layers are deprived of support, and tumble down. A complete chaos is thus created; ice, plants, bones, peat, clay, are mixed in the most disorderly manner. It is hardly possible to imagine a more grotesque aspect. Here are seen pieces still covered with lichens and mosses, there a shoal of earth with bushes of willows; at one place a lump of clay with senecios and polygonums, at another the remnants of a mammoth, tufts of hair, and some brown dust, which emits the smell peculiar to burial places, and is evidently decomposed animal matter. The foot frequently stumbles over enormous osteological remains, some elephants' tusks measuring twelve feet in length, and weighing more than 240 pounds. Nor is the formation confined to Eschscholtz Bay. It is observed in various parts of Kotzebue Sound, on the river Buckland, and in other localities, making it probable that a great portion of extreme Northwestern America is, underneath, a solid mass of ice.—With such facts before us we must acknowledge that terrestrial heat exercises but a limited and indirect influence upon vegetable life, and that to the solar rays we are mainly indebted for the existence of those forms which clothe with verdure the surface of our planet."

A curious fact is stated respecting the condition of the vegetable world during the long days of the Arctic summer. Although the sun never sets while it lasts, plants make no mistake about the time, when, if it be not night, it ought to be; but regularly as the evening hours approach, and when a midnight sun is several degrees above the horizon, droop their leaves, and sleep even as they do at sunset in more favoured climes. "If man," observes Mr. Seemann, "should ever reach the Pole, and be undecided which way to turn, when his compass has become sluggish, his timepiece out of order, the plants which he may happen to meet will show him the way; their sleeping leaves tell him that midnight is at hand, and that at that time the sun is standing in the North."

PEARL FISHERIES OF THE PACIFIC.

The principal pearl fisheries of the Pacific are those located about sixty or seventy miles from Panama, in the bay or gulf of that name. They were formerly the property of the Spanish crown, and were carried on under the direction of the Spanish government, being considered the same as the gold and silver mines. Fishermen were allowed the privilege of diving for pearls by paying to the government a duty called *quinto*, that is five per cent, of their earnings.

Soon after this country threw off her allegiance to Spain, and assumed independent powers as part of the republic, the duty on pearl fishing was abolished; pearls being considered as the natural products of the sea, and like all other fish, free to all. There is now, no duty required—every man enjoys the same privileges in common with another, and is entitled to all the results of his labor. He can dive anywhere in the waters of the bay, and is protected in his possession of all he can, in this way, acquire.

The most extensive and valuable fisheries are those of the Pearl Islands. These islands were formerly called Ilas del Rey, or King's Islands, and are so laid down and denominated on the old maps. They are now called Ilas de Perlas. The business is chiefly is carried on in the Archipelago of these islands, which number from sixty to seventy. The principal island is called San Miguel. It has a town of the same name, containing a population of about 1,500 inhabitants. All of these islands are more or less inhabited, and most of them have become private property. San Miguel being the largest, is owned by a large number of persons.

There are, at this time, from twelve to fifteen hundred persons, engaged in the pearl-fisheries of these islands. The value of the pearls taken varies from $80,000 to $150,000 per annum, seldom less than

$100,000 besides from nine hundred to one thousand tons of pearl shells, averaging in value, $40,000.—These shells were formerly esteemed as worthless, but recently they have become the chief article of export from this country, being worth from thirty to forty dollars per ton.

Diving for pearls is an interesting and at the same time dangerous pursuit. The diver generally dives in from three to seven fathoms of water; and brings up at each dive from six to twelve shells. They dive at low water always, as the diving ground at high-water has been cleared of the shells. They usually work from two hours and a half to three hours, during which time they dive from twelve to fifteen times. The best divers remain under water from fifty-eight to sixty one seconds; but the most of them can only remain under from forty-five to fifty seconds. It is altogether a mistaken idea that has gone abroad,and is now currently believed, that pearl-divers can remain under water ten and fifteen minutes. We have conversed with a distinguishod gentleman of this city, who has been engaged in the pearl trade upwards of thirty years, upon this point, and he assures us that the very longest time he ever knew a diver to remain under water was sixty-one seconds, and that he was induced to do so, by the promise of a reward of two or three ounces (doubloons.)

The pearl oyster is used for food, and resembles the sand-clam of the Atlantic coast. The fishermen and the natives use it both fresh, when just taken, and when preserved by being par-boiled and dried. It is exceedingly palatable, and is esteemed as very good substantial food. The preparation of preserving the oyster in this manner is very simple, and the oyster after being preserved is strung upon a string, and hung up, in a cool, dry place. It keeps a long time and can afterwards be cooked in a variety of ways, as fancy or custom or appetite may suggest.

The pearl is considered to be a disease of the oyster. It is generally found in the flesh of the oyster, although, sometimes, it has been found adhering to the side of the shell. Upon opening the oyster, the diver uses great precaution to prevent the pearl from dropping out, should the oyster contain one.

The price of pearls varies according to their purity, shape and weight—say from ten dollars to five thousand per ounce. From five hundred to fifteen hundred dollars are very frequently paid here for single pearls, not weighing more than three sixteenths of an ounce.

An English company, some years since, obtained a privilege to fish with diving bells, but the enterprise proved a total failure in consequence of the unevenness of the bottom. Since then, no attempt of a similar character has been made, nor has any machinery or apparatus ever been used to bring up the shells.

No doubt whatever exists as to the great abundance of the pearl-oyster in the waters of the Archipelago, though at so great a depth as to defy the skill of the diver. By means of a sub-marine armor, or by the use of a proper machine constructed for the purpose, in connection with a sub-marine armor, we have no doubt that a fortune could be realized in a very short time. The shells, alone, which could be thus obtained, would defray an outlay for such an apparatus, and all the expenses attending its operations.—And, as it is the belief of many, sanctioned by the experience of old divers, that the best and largest pearls are found in deep water, it is but fair to presume that the yield would be highly profitable. An exclusive privilege could readily be obtained from the Provisional Chambers for the use of such an apparatus, and we know of nothing to hinder the successful prosecution of an enterprise of this kind. We know a gentleman of wealth and high respectability, residing in this city who would be willing to unite with a competent person, or with a company to engage in such an enterprise, and whose facilities and knowledge upon the subject are unequalled for all its practical purposes.

The Pearl Islands are considered remarkably healthy, quite fertile, producing all the ordinary vegetables and fruits of the country, and the inhabitants, who are mostly black, are kind, hospitable, and inoffensive.—*Panama Herald.*

Addresses, Reports, &c.

THE RELATION of SCHOOLS and COLLEGES.

REPORT *on the connection between Schools and Colleges and their influence upon each other; read before the Ohio State Teachers' Association, on the Annual Meeting, January* 1, 1852, *by* I. W. ANDREWS, *Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Marietta College:*

All educational institutions may be embraced in two classes: *general* and *special*, or *non-professional* and *professional*. The first class regard the pupil simply as a human being. He is endowed with faculties which are to be cultivated. In the possession of these, one child is like another—like all others. All have them, and therefore all need to be educated. The second class—professional institutions—have a different end in view. They respect the occupation, the profession, of the future man, and they educate accordingly. The one class provides culture for man, as man; the other educates him as a lawyer, a physician, a farmer.

With this whole class of professional schools, this Association has sympathy, indeed, but their improvement is not its immediate object. It has to do rather with schools that are schools for all, no schools for a few; and with colleges that are colleges, not for farmers especially, or for lawyers, but for all—for one as well as for another.

An exception must of course be made in favor of Normal Schools. They are strictly professional, as much so as medical schools. Yet, as their sole end is to prepare Teachers for their work, their existence and prosperity must necessarily be matters of the highest interest to the members of such an Association as ours.

Let us suppose our State, with its present population, to be entirely without schools, of whatever grade, for general education. And suppose, that to a number of men possessing all the requisite qualifications, were assigned the duty of constructing a suitable system—not of special and professional schools, but one that should furnish for the children and youth of the State, all the non-professional education which they might need—a system which should embrace every facility for the best intellectual training of the human mind. I certainly shall not venture to give a sketch, even, of the beautiful and magnificent edifice which we might expect to see spring up. But there are some principles whose truth is so generally admitted and acted upon in all the educational movements of the day, that we cannot suppose the architects and builders of our imaginary educational structure, to enter upon their work without a recognition of them.

One of these is, that *schools are necessary.* There are men who have educated themselves, but they are

exceptions. The members of this Association have come from the different extremities of the State, not to show how well a lad may educate himself by his father's fireside, without school and without instructor, or to recommend to our youth to adopt such a mode in preference to attendance upon the institutions which have been established for this express purpose; they have come, on the contrary, to devise ways to increase the educational facilities of these institutions—to render them more efficient and successful. We are wont to speak in terms of high commendation of those who have risen to usefulness and eminence in spite of the difficulties by which they have been surrounded; but it is their energy and perseverance, and not their lack of assistance, that calls forth our praise. As an association of *Teachers*, we cannot for a moment admit the question of *schools or no schools*—we cannot so speak of the self-educated as to induce our youth to think, that education without instructors is better than education with them. This principle then must be admitted, that the best educational interests of our youth require that there should be provided schools in which they may be trained; and not that each should be left to find his own way up the hill of knowledge without guide and without helper. Otherwise, the work of our commissioners would be completed before it had been commenced.

Another principle universally recognized, is, that *there must be classification*—classification *of* schools as well as *in* schools. The schools themselves must be arranged in classes, as well as the pupils in a particular school. There is no one feature made more prominent than this, by the best instructors in the nation. Its introduction into our towns has wrought a most wonderful transformation. There would be elementary schools for beginners, then others of higher and higher grades, till ample provision should be made for the general education of every child and youth in the State.

We should not expect that each pupil would complete the whole course. Yet the number that would attempt this, would be in proportion to the completeness of the classification, and to the excellence of the instruction of the elementary departments. Nor do we now inquire how many or how high grades should be established in any individual township, town, or city: we affirm only that, somewhere, institutions should be provided, in which the wants of all might be met. To equalize perfectly the advantages of any system would be manifestly impossible. The more dense the population, the more complete the classification could be made. In the more sparsely settled regions, after progressing as far as their neighborhood schools could carry them thoroughly and economically, the more studious would seek admission into the High School or Academy of the nearest large town. And if any should wish to make acquisitions beyond what the High School could furnish, they must repair to institutions of still higher grade.

From what has been said, we cannot mistake as to the connection between Schools and Colleges. Colleges constitute the highest grade of our non-professional educational institutions. They are an integral part of the system, sustaining to the High School and the Academy precisely the same relation which these sustain to the lower schools.

Until recently, all non-professional institutions have been ranged in three divisions—Common Schools, Academies, and Colleges. Of these three, the College has been much the most specific in its character. It has undertaken a more definite work than either of the others. In them a much greater variety of attainment has always been found. The Academy has admitted multitudes that ought to have been in the School, and the School has been compelled to retain many that should have been found in the Academy. In practice, there has been no boundary line between them, except in the case of a very few of our best Academies. But the College has always had its boundaries on either side. It has required a definite amount of literary attainment for entrance, and the completion of the prescribed course of study, is the completion of the student's connection with it. The inmates of the college have also been required to arrange themselves in classes, that the instruction might be rendered as sufficient as possible, by giving ample time to the recitation, and by permitting the instructors to confine themselves to particular branches. Thus, Colleges have ever conformed to the two features of classification.

The other departments of what I have called general education, are now beginning to follow the example of the College, in the matter of classification. Formerly, the common school and academy had no limitation in the range of studies. The pupil might enter when he chose, and remain as long as he chose. And so long as his teacher was willing to hear him, he might study what he chose. Thus, the Teacher was sometimes required to pass from a recitation in primer to one in Virgil—from one in the elements of numbers to one in Trigenometry. But an improvement has commenced. The principle of division of labor, so long in use in our colleges, is beginning to be applied to schools. Most of our towns now have their Graded Schools, each possesses a definite course of study, which the pupil must complete before he can pass on to the next higher; and when he has completed it, he *must* pass on. The advantages of this arrangement are so manifest in theory, and in its practical workings it combines so fully both economy and efficiency, that no doubt can be indulged of its general prevalence.

It is sometimes said that "Colleges are behind the age." It is one of the most general of all generalities, and may mean anything or nothing. Whatever may be intended by it when applied to Colleges, we have seen that none of the greatest improvements introduced into our schools has been adopted from the Colleges; so that, if they are behind the age, they at least have the Union Schools to keep them company.

The College then is, chronologically, the last school in our general school system. Using the most general classification and nomenclature, we have five departments—the Primary, the Secondary, the Grammar School, the High School, and the College, occupying from two to four years each. They all have the same end in view, and differ only in the order of succession. Some think that Colleges are intended specially for professional men; and so many think that High Schools and Academies are for the special benefit of the rich. The two opinions are deserving of equal credit. From the day the boy commences the alphabet, to the day that terminates his collegiate course of study, he is pursuing those studies which the intelligent voice of mankind have pronounced to be the best adapted to the development of his intellectual faculties. Examine the course of study in all the best Union Schools in Ohio, and you will find a remarkable similarity. Go to other States, and it is still the same. Whence has it arisen? Manifestly from the conviction, in the minds of intelligent men engaged in the work of instruction, that these studies, each in its place, are just what the pupils require.

It, as I have before supposed, the whole school system were to be reconstructed, should we not have, substantially, the same grades as now exist? It would hardly be affirmed that the highest grade is unnecessary, because some of our young men are to highly educated. Nor would it be said that the studies of that grade could be better pursued without instructors. Professional education is obtained by the aid of teachers, and that, in most of the professions, at a very heavy expense. Much more, then, does general education, which precedes professional, require instructors.

What institutions shall furnish the closing portion of a good general education? Were our High Schools to attempt it with their present organization, they would violate the principle that lies at the basis of Graded Schools. Give them a large corps of instructors, and increase the time to six or eight years, and they might do it. In that case, however, they must be divided into at least two grades; the upper of which would be, in substance, a College. But, except in the case of our large cities, the expense of such an arrangement would be an insuperable obstacle. The Metropolitan City is now making the experiment with her Free Academy, and we doubt not that it will be successful.

But even if all our large cities had institutions of the highest grade for their own youth, they could not meet the wants of the citizens of our towns and townships. Parents would not send their children to the cities. There must be institutions located at eligible points, to meet these wants. We have them already, and they are called Colleges. What link is wanting in the system? It may be enlarged and perfected, but it now seems to be a continuous system —an uninterrupted succession of links.

I have dwelt more upon the relation of Colleges to the other parts of the system, because of the vagueness which exists in the minds of not a few, as to the precise place which Colleges occupy in our educational machinery. If the view now presented is the true one, the College is the highest of our institutions for general education, as distinct from professional. The culture which it gives may be more essential to certain occupations than to others, but it is because these require a higher culture. In this, it is not peculiar. It is the same from the beginning of the school course. Especially is it true of the High School and Academy. But who calls these professional? Or what Teacher, who is worthy of the name, would hesitate to affirm that the studies of the High School would be of inculculable value to every lad, no matter what might be his future employment? From beginning to end, through every stage of educational process, which commences with the primary school and closes with the college, the culture is intendeded for the future man, as man—as a being endowed by his Creator with noble faculties, which need development; and not for him as a merchant, or a farmer, or a lawyer, in distinction from the other pursuits of life.

When a lad applies for admission into the public schools of this city, is the inquiry made, what is to be his future avocation, and are his studies arranged accordingly? By no means. Who can tell, in this land of ours, what is to be a lad's future career?—The only inquiry is, what are his present attainments? These known, certain studies are assigned him, which are precisely what he needs; and no material alteration would be made, could the instructor pierce the veil of futurity and know absolutely the occupation of the future man. Neither, I venture to assert, does any superintendent excuse a lad from the study of arithmetic because he avows that he has no love for the study, or because a phrenological examination should develop the fact, that the mathematical bump was rather below than above the average. And yet because Colleges do precisely in this what is done in the best schools in the land, we find men, otherwise well informed, declaring that the present college system does not meet the wants of the age.

Let it be remembered that the principles of these objections, so far as they are based on any principles, legitimately carried out with respect to the other parts of our great school system, would utterly annihilate its highest excellencies. Every blow aimed at what is called the "compulsory" principle in our Colleges, is just as truly a blow at the system of Graded or Union Schools. They are parts of the same great and beautiful system, and are based upon one and the same principle—perfect classification.

To remodel the College System by taking away the "compulsory" principle, i. e., the principle of complete classification, and permitting each student to make his own selection of studies, would be like giving up our graded schools and going back to the *single district* system. Yet such a plan has its advocates, who claim, withal to be in the very van of the world's progressives. They say a young man's tastes must be consulted—the studies must be adapted to his mental idiosyncracy—or there will be no real discipline of faculties; and, again, his proposed pursuits in life must determine his course of study. They do not tell us what is to be done, when his future occupation pulls him in one direction, and his idiosyncracy in another.

If an institution attempts to fit one man to be a farmer, another to be a merchant, and so on, through all the multiplied avocations of society, its right to do so cannot be questioned: this is a free country. But just so far as it does this, it becomes a *professional* school, and withdraws itself from the work of *general* education. And yet, strangely enough, it is on this *professional* characteristic, that the claims of such institutions to public favor are based. The points of difference between them and other Colleges, are just those between them and the best Graded Schools.—So far forth as they differ from other Colleges, they have no closer affinity for the general school system than the Starling Medical College.

The system of general education has then its completion in the College proper. The College is the continuation of the course commenced years before in the most elementary department. It sustains to the High School and Academy, exactly the relation that one of these does to the next before it in order of time. The whole forms a complete school system. The object of either department is the same as that of the others, and if any one fails perfectly to accomplish that work, it furnishes but another proof that imperfection attaches to all human works.

Let us now consider the influence which Schools and Colleges exert upon one another.

The influence of the School upon the College is direct and immediate. The road to the latter lies through the former. The College having always adhered to the principle of the division of labor, must receive its pupils from the school. According to the character of the training to which they have been here subjected, will be, in no small measure, their future scholarship. If this early training has been imperfect, however faithfully the student may perform his collegiate duties, he cannot wholly free himself from the difficulties which have thus been brought upon him. On the other hand, when all his previous work has been properly performed, each

branch having received its appropriate attention, and at the proper time, the student is prepared to reap all the advantages which a well-digested collegiate course is calculated to furnish.

The College is also dependent upon the school for the habits of study of its students. Before entering College the pupil has spent from six to twelve years in the different departments of the schools. In this long period, habits will have been formed which it will be difficult to change. If these are what they should be, the previous teachers will deserve no small share of the praise for the student's subsequent success; and so, if these habits are the opposite of what they should be, to the same previous teachers must be attributed a considerable portion of the blame of his final failure.

In both the particulars now mentioned, it will be seen that the influence of the previous schools upon the College, is just the same as that of the lower schools upon the High School. The amount of this influence is believed in both cases to be greatly underrated, and the tendency is too common to attribute all the imperfections of a young man's education to the institution, whether school or college, where his course was nominally finshed; whereas, in truth, every school in which he has been enrolled, and every teacher who attempted to give him instruction, has contributed to the final result.

A third particular may be mentioned, in which the influence of the school upon the college is too great to be overlooked. It is an influence not affecting the scholarship of the students, but their number. The question whether a lad shall receive a liberal education, is very frequently decided by the teacher of the school. This is done in different ways; sometimes by direct advice. A teacher who has imbibed a prejudice against collegiate institutions, learns that a bright lad among his pupils has a half-formed purpose of obtaining a liberal education. He endeavors to dissuade him—magnifies the difficulties to be encountered—tells him that such an education will do him no good, and that he will be better off without it. Or, without taking ground thus positively against a college education, he may, by doubt and insinuation, accomplish the end quite as effectually. The ingenuous boy has confidence in his teacher, and the noble purpose is nipped in the bud. A word of encouragement, on the other hand, would have cherished and strengthened the purpose, and in after years that instructor might perhaps have seen his former pupil taking his place among the magnates of the Republic, a dispenser of blessings to his country and his race.

The same ends are often accomplished without any direct effort on the part of the teacher. Is he incompetent, possessed of little knowledge himself, and poorly fitted to impart that little, how can he stir up the dormant energies of those entrusted to his care? —how instil into their minds that thirst for future knowledge, which constitutes one of the strongest guarantees for future improvement? He stands before his pupils a sort of personification of education, and no wonder they have no desire to go farther.—Contrast with him the man of large and varied acquirements, of ripe and polished scholarship, and possessing, besides, that enthusiasm in his work, that power of enkindling in the breasts of his pupils a strong desire to know, which is second to no other qualification of the most successful teacher. Can genius long remain latent under such influences? As part after part of the rich domain of knowledge is explored with such a guide, will there not spring up an irrepressible desire to go farther—to make still wider explorations? The higher the culture, and the more varied and accurate the attainments of the teacher of the school, when associated, as they should always be, with intense enthusiasm, the greater will be the number to be seen urging their way onward from grade to grade, till they have possessed themselves of the highest anvantages that our great educational system can offer.

But what is the influence of the College upon the School? Keeping in mind that the College is the highest department in the system of general education, it is manifest that, wherever correct views are entertained of our educational machinery as a whole, the College must act with magnetic force upon the pupils of the other departments. Prominent among the reasons urged for the establishment of High Schools in our towns and cities, is this—that the High Schools will exert a powerful influence upon the lower schools, by inciting their pupils to greater diligence and faithfulness in their studies. The argument is equally applicable to the College.

Again, it is urged in favor of the establishment of High Schools and Academies, that they will furnish teachers. This argument too, whose truthfulness will not be questioned, applies with equal pertinency to the College. The College benefits the School by training up and sending forth those who will become teachers. It seems hardly necessary to say, that I do not mean to affirm that the knowledge and intellectual discipline obtained in College, are all that good teachers need; and yet there are not a few who seem to think, that because the young graduate does not at once equal the teacher who has had the experience of half a score of years, therefore a College education is no help to a man who would become an instructor. It requires strong logic to show the connection here between premise and conclusion.

A College is not a Normal School, though it may have such a department. And it is no more to be blamed for not doing the work of a Normal School than a High School. The province of each of them is, not to educate a young man as a teacher, any more, or less, than as a merchant. Each has for its appropriate office the communication of knowledge and the development of the whole mind, and not that of initiating into the mysteries of teaching as a profession. This last is the province especially of the Normal School; and when such a school shall have been established in our State, let every candidate for admission into the corps of teachers, be required to certify that he has been in attendance in that school or some other, at least one term.

It requires a combination of rare excellencies to make a good teacher—a teacher of a school. It is hardly too much to say, that success—a high degree of success—is a more difficult attainment in this than in any other of the occupations of life. One of these excellencies, and certainly one of the first importance, is *knowledge*—knowledge of the subjects which our children must be taught. The more knowledge the teacher has the better, other things being equal; for it is a rare complaint against him, that he knows too much, or too well. The best teacher is never satisfied with his present attainments—he is always learning. Now some things taught in College are certainly more immediately availing to the teacher than others, but there is not one which it is not his interest to know—their is not one which our best instructors, whose early opportunities were limited, are not studying for themselves, as they can snatch fragments of time from the pressure of their daily duties. Should

it be said that it is better to pursue these studies thus than under instructors, then we may affirm the same of other branches lower down on the scale, till, in the end, we shall shut up every school house in the land.

The principle, that attainments in the higher studies qualify for the better understanding of the most elementary branches, is acted upon universally. The man who instructs the most advanced classes in the High School, is the Superintendent of the Primary Schools, the teachers of which instruct under his direction. So in the very center of educational progress, on the soil where good scholars flourish best, such thorough educated men as Horace Mann, Barnas Sears and Henry Barnard, are appointed State Superintendents.

Perhaps Colleges also, through their Professors and Alumni, do their part in the preparation of school books, from the spelling book up. The three Arithmetics in most general use in this State, give us the name of Ray, Davies, and Thomson. In Readers, we have Mandeville, McGuffey and Pinneo. In Lexicography, Webster and Worcester.

Once more: Colleges repay the Schools by scattering abroad through the community a class of men who are always found to be the warmest supporters of good schools. Liberally educated men, without exception, are anxious that their children should be well instructed. They are always foremost in employing well qualified instructors, and most ready to give them an adequate compensation. Their countenance and support may be depended upon when the teacher has to contend with the prejudices of the narrow-minded and ignorant. Their suggestions for the improvement of his school, will always meet his approbation and encouragement. When our noble system of free schools is attacked by the demagogue under the plea of economy, the educated man will be found among its most earnest and successful defenders.*

If the connection between the School and the College be thus intimate, and if the influence which each exerts upon the other be as direct and potent as has here been supposed, the inquiry is certainly pertinent, how can we, as teachers in various grades, so discharge our duties, as to premote in the highest measure the general interests of education? The answer is involved in the general statement of principles. The College and the Schools form one system—a classified system. Whatever may be the sphere of the teacher's labors, he is to remember that he is a co-worker with others. *Division of labor* lies at the foundation of the system, and the more closely each one adheres to it, the better will he perform his own part, the better can the others perform theirs,and the more will be accomplished by the whole. Our positive duty is to instruct, to the best of our ability, our pupils in our own studies; our negative duty is to avoid throwing any obstacles in the way of the successful performance of his duty by the teacher to whom our pupils are to be transferred. Each teacher has his preference for certain branches of study, and must form his own judgment respecting their utility or inutility: but if, by general consent, a particular study is made a component part of the course, it is his duty to teach it as thoroughly as he may, if it comes in his department, and if it falls elsewhere, to give the teacher there a fair field.

One teacher who instructs in Eglish Grammar, Arithmetic, and Geography, has no faith in the utility of the Classics. Shall he indoctrinate all his pupils and their parents with his sentiments on this point? If that is right and courteous, would it be against right and courtesy for another teacher to give these pupils and their parents his convictions that the study of Grammar was of no possible use? Plainly, the law of reciprocity should be recognized in these matters. Multitudes of the people of Ohio have not the smallest faith in the study of English Grammar, and it is but three years since a knowledge of it by the teacher of the common school was made a statute requisition. As this portion of the people, and as those teachers who were laid on the shelf by this new statute, regard English Grammar, so do others of the people, and so do a few teachers, regard the classics and the higher Mathematics. The cases are parallel. If those ignorant of Grammar are not the best judges of its utility or inutility, neither are those who are ignorant of the higher studies, the most competent to decide as to their introduction into the course.

But I fear I have exceeded the proper limits of a report. The subject has been to me one of great interest, and I cannot but regard it as one of great practical importance. As teachers in the various departments, upon us is laid almost the entire responsibility for the right working of the great educational machinery. Each one has his particular part assigned to him, and each must do his part with reference to the whole. Each has a claim upon all the others for sympathy and assistance. The teacher of the school has a right to my active and efficient co-operation, and wo be to me if that co-operation be withheld. And I in turn stand in need of his aid, and I doubt not I shall receive it. With this harmonious co-operation, with this ever-abiding remembrance of the intimate connection of the labors of each with those of all the rest, I anticipate a brighter day for the whole educational interests of our great State, than has ever yet dawned. Our elementary instruction is more perfect than ever before. As class after class, well drilled in all the successive branches, pass from grade to grade till at last they find their way into the College—if this latter, with this better material than it has ever yet had, does not properly perform its appropriate work—if it cannot and does not complete the column which the labor of others has commenced, and upon that column place a beautiful and fit capital—then summon it to the bar of an enlightened public opinion, and make it answer for its delinquencies.

*The writer cannot refrain from alluding to the triumphant manner in which Hon. Luther Bradish defended the System of Popular Education, in the city of New York, against the ungenerous attack of the Mayor, in his Address of January, 1851. He will be pardoned for expressing his gratification, that his own Alma Mater claims Mr. B as an alumnus, as also the excellent and popular President of the Board of Education in that city, Hon. E. C. Benedict.

The history of words, is the history of trade and commerce. Your very apparel is a Dictionary.

"They tell us of the 'bayonet' that it was first made at Bayonne—'cambrics, that they came from Cambray—'damask' from Damascus—'arras' from a city of the same name—'cordwine,' or 'cordova' from Cordova—'currants' from Corinth—the 'guinea' that was originally coined from gold brought from the African coast, so called—'camlet,' that it was woven, at least in part, of camel's hair: Such has been the manufacturing progress, that we now and then send calicoes and muslins to India and the East; yet the words give standing witness that we once imported them from thence, for 'calico' is from Calcutta, and 'muslin' from Mousul, a city in Asiatic Turkey."